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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 5, 1900.

The Week.

All students of legislation have agreed in denouncing the Congressional practice of passing general legislation as part of the appropriation bills. This year, at the hands of a group of embattled members, the House of Representatives got, as the phrase is, "just what was coming to it." Out of a difficulty of its own creation it extricates itself by an action which, however "practical," is without justification in logic, law, or precedent. In the face of the absolutely definite rule against expenditures not authorized by existing law, the Appropriations Committee has followed its own sweet will so far that the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial bill has been "riddled" by perfectly valid points of order, and can be saved only by a special rule to the effect that it shall be passed whether legal or illegal. The point of order in Congress has long been regarded simply as a club. The Speaker does not enforce the rule against new legislation or provisions not germane unless somebody brings the case to his attention. Thus many of the most necessary bills, as in the present instance, come upon the floor in a shockingly vulnerable state. As for the extraordinary expedient adopted to save the measure, we hope the incident will merely be a salutary warning to the House, and not the beginning of a line of precedent that will still further tighten the grip of the Speaker and the Rules Committee upon the organization.

Never, certainly, was there a bill which appealed to more sorts or conditions of people than that reported from the Ways and Means Committee providing for free alcohol. The farmer and the manufacturer stand side by side in its favor. The former expects to gain a new market for odds and ends of grain, potatoes, and fruit, the latter to get greatly cheapened a material important to almost every line of industry. The Trust-buster—for the Standard Oil Company is reported as strenuously opposed to free alcohol—makes common cause with the automobile-owning magnate. Even the temperance organizations, it appears, favor the bibulous-sounding bill on the psychological ground that the special kind of alcohol the production of which is to be encouraged will be poisonous, and that its general use and familiarity will cause the coming generation unconsciously to regard all alcohol as a poison, and not a beverage. The bill thus has plenty of friends. Whe-

ther they are the kind that can make an impression on a Congress, especially a Senate, which gets itself into an artificial hurry in the years of the long session, is another question. Legislation that would cheapen anything would be regarded by some as a bad precedent.

Every one interested in the preservation of Niagara Falls should second President Roosevelt's recommendation that there be enacted into law the suggestions of the American members of the International Waterways Commission. If the Falls are to be saved, there is no time to lose. The Commission was composed on both sides of able and far-sighted men, who are strongly of the opinion that any further diversion of water will bring ruin with it. There was substantial agreement on the facts by both Canadians and Americans, and the Canadian Government, it is announced, is ready to act. According to its Minister of Public Works, the right to export power will henceforth be granted only subject to revocation at short notice, while the water-power companies will be subject to such rules and regulations as the Government sees fit to impose. The preservation of the scenic beauty of the Falls will henceforth be the special care of the Government. The United States must not lag behind. Congress ought to adopt the suggestion of the Commission, which the President, with his well-known love of nature, is so prompt to reinforce. The destruction of Niagara Falls for money would forever stamp this country abroad as a nation dead to anything but what touches the pocket.

President George F. Baer was quite right in telling President John Mitchell that the order to the anthracite miners to quit work on Monday, pending an agreement, was "most extraordinary." The operators had expressed their entire readiness to meet their employees and discuss the points of difference. The postponement of such a conference till after the first of April had been in deference to President Mitchell's own desire. Under the circumstances the calling out of the miners was a gratuitous exhibition of bad manners. The act, however, relates to etiquette rather than principle; and the operators are well advised in proceeding with the conference as if nothing unpleasant had happened. Both sides are in duty bound to take up the negotiations in a conciliatory mood. The United Mine Workers have apparently begun to realize that they cannot have everything they ask for. At first they proposed to tie up

every bituminous mine until every bituminous operator had yielded—a relentless and wholly unjustifiable sympathetic strike. John Mitchell, however, now urges them to work for any operator with whom they can come to terms. Unless his advice is followed in this respect, the mine workers can succeed in nothing but the alienation of public sympathy.

The "Dawkins Bill," lately vetoed by Gov. Warfield of Maryland, is a fine example of labor legislation rampant. What organized labor demanded, and what but for Gov. Warfield the Legislature would have granted, was this: Baltimore is to spend something like \$10,000,000 in public improvements, including a sewer system; the work is to be done, at the direction of competent engineers, as quickly as possible under the stimulus of the "new and better Baltimore" movement; but the labor leaders of that city conceived it to be a fine opportunity to show their hand, and Mr. Dawkins introduced a bill into the Legislature providing that only registered voters of Maryland should be employed on public work in Baltimore. As first drawn, the bill included architects, engineers, contractors. Later, it was amended, as a great concession, to except "technical employees." In both House and Senate this extraordinary proposition to create a labor monopoly was passed by large majorities, the labor lobbyists threatening political vengeance in the event of an adverse vote. But, to the credit of the Governor, he disposed of the bill in so effective a veto message that upon its resubmission to the Legislature it won only the slightest showing of support.

Judge Greenbaum's reputation as a careful and firm magistrate will be heightened by his action in making permanent the injunction against violence by the striking printers. The evidence was overwhelming that the typographical union, or its agents, had resorted to assaults as well as threats, in its efforts to deter free printers from accepting the work offered them. At the hearing, this was not denied. Nor could Judge Greenbaum find that the union had ever protested against the brutal outrages committed in its behalf, or done anything to punish the guilty. It appears that the union has no "rules" covering such cases. It is quite right, therefore, and highly necessary that the courts should enjoin organized labor from acts of intimidation and violence. In Washington, also, the Typothetae have secured a similar ruling from a judge there. He took occasion to lay

down the sound opinion that lawless acts are especially criminal when directed against the liberty of a man to take what work and wages he may please.

The Republican situation in this city is rapidly going from bad to worse. The wave of reform which put Herbert Parsons in the county chairmanship and led to the selection of Mr. Wadsworth as Speaker, seems to have spent its force, and decent Republicans are once more confronted with the fact that Odell dominates the situation. Through all the righteous attacks upon him he has held on with brazen effrontery to the State Chairmanship, and on Thursday he came to town and calmly annexed the City Committee. Twenty-two of the thirty-six district leaders joined him at the Fifth Avenue Hotel, and mapped out a Senate and Assembly reapportionment act in accordance with his desires. Mr. Parsons was deliberately ignored. Halpin, Van Cott, Alexander, and all the rest of the gang were there, and L. E. Quigg, too. It was not so very long ago that Odell, in his fine zeal to reform the city's politics, declined to see Quigg at any time or place; yea, rumor had it that he would not even hold telephonic communication with him. Bidwell, Quigg, Frank Platt, Dunn, and others were to be driven out of public life for the good of the party. Evidently, these rumors were base fabrications. Mr. Odell sees that the way to reform is to cherish the professional politicians and spurn the reformers. Mr. Parsons had better look out; a silk-stocking of his kind ought to get ready to resign. Odell is in the saddle to stay, and respectable Republicans had better submit—Choate, Root, Higgins, Roosevelt, and all the rest.

We never did think that Mr. Jerome could long be content with his strangely chosen rôle of William the Silent. So it was no great surprise to find him passing, on Friday morning, from his stern "nothing to say" to four columns of carefully prepared explanation. This, at least, is the man we knew—the Jerome of extraordinarily developed sensitiveness to popular feeling, the frank and talkative official, the "good advertiser." Better late than never is what he now says about his own campaign fund. None of it, he tells us, came from corporations; certain proffered contributions were refused, because Mr. Jerome looked the gift-horse in the mouth. So far excellent. The only wonder is that Mr. Jerome did not say as much long ago. His assumption that he was insulted by questions on that point was wholly gratuitous, and his temporary pose as the strong man contemptuous of public opinion was not at all in character. Now that he has abandoned all

that, we expect him to go on and make that full statement about his campaign receipts and expenditures which their important bearing on the whole question of electoral reform renders pertinent and urgent.

Mr. Jerome's apologia as respects his handling of the insurance cases does not do much, unhappily, to explain how it was that, having advised the Grand Jury to ask instructions from Judge O'Sullivan, he became angry when those instructions did not square with his own expressed views. He does not make it clear why, after having, as he says, convinced himself in his conscience and on his oath of office that Mr. Perkins was not guilty of grand larceny, he had him arrested on that charge. We hear but one opinion about this unfortunate vacillation of Mr. Jerome's, which may easily prejudice the legal determination of the criminality of the insurance gifts to political corruptionists. But the District Attorney now practically admits his blunder. In all that remains of the insurance cases, he is evidently preparing to act with greater vigor and directness. He has asked for and obtained a special Grand Jury for May, to devote itself exclusively to the investigation of insurance offences. It will be a chastened Jerome who devotes himself to that critical inquiry, and we look for no mishandling of it.

The important amendments of the insurance bills introduced on Thursday for the Armstrong committee enlarge the permissible ratio of "contingency reserves" to outstanding insurance; extend the maximum ratio of expenditure on obtaining new business, and allow the companies to retain such collateral trust bonds as they now possess, though further investment in those securities is still prohibited. The change in the "contingency reserve" section is a concession to the argument presented by President Ide at the recent hearing. He contended with much force that absolute restriction of this fund amounted to "putting a limit on conservatives." With the proposed limitation applied in 1903, shrinkage of Stock Exchange values would have placed one of the three largest companies in a position of technical insolvency. These objections the committee now meets by raising substantially the maximum limitation on such reserves, and by permitting the companies, with the assent of the Insurance Superintendent, to go beyond even the new limitation in case of a general fall of investment values. To the original bill for limiting first expenses, three objections of weight were made at the hearing—one, that the limitation would not allow a living profit to the agent; another, Mr. McClintock's statement that so rigid an artificial limitation as was

proposed "would cramp the company and increase the cost of its business"; a third, that the committee's own estimates of reasonable first cost had not included due allowance for medical and other routine outlay. To these arguments the committee defers, enlarging moderately the agents' commission and renewal rights, and allowing for other necessary first charges.

These amendments have to do with technical questions, and do not affect the original aim—namely, to put an absolute barrier in the way of extravagance in the race for the "biggest showing of insurance written." A different question arose in the collateral trust bond matter. Such investment of insurance funds was forbidden in the committee's bills, on the perfectly proper ground that bonds whose sole security is the stock deposited behind them, must be classed with the stocks as an investment, and should therefore be excluded as are the stocks themselves. It developed, at the hearing of March 9, that \$107,000,000 of such bonds are already held by New York insurance companies. It was then contended that compulsory sale of that amount, even in a five-year term, would seriously upset values. This was a matter of opinion; the committee, however, has deemed it best to err, if at all, on the side of conservatism in its changes, and it allows the companies to keep such collateral trust bonds as they already hold. If this is a concession in principle, it is nevertheless probable that no harm will result from it; for further purchase remains prohibited, and holdings of actual shares in other enterprises, to which the practical objection was more serious, must still be sold within the five-year period.

To all budding logicians we commend Gov. Higgins's latest utterance on the subject of investigating the Banking Department:

"I believe that the Banking Department should be investigated, and the responsibility for action now rests with the Assembly. There is a bill before them. The Assembly passed a resolution, which the Senate did not see fit to approve. The Senate has sent to them a bill which I do not think any one can honestly question."

In other words, the Assembly passes a bill for a thorough and genuine investigation—the kind of thing which Gov. Higgins and his friend, Superintendent Kilburn, do not want. The Senate rejects the Assembly bill and proposes a limited, whitewashing investigation. No one opposes the Senate bill except those leaders of a forlorn hope who wish to see the Banking Department administered without fear or favor; and these idealists in politics do not count. If they refuse to assent to the plan of sprinkling rose-water over Mr. Kilburn,

they are, in the view of Gov. Higgins, responsible for the failure to investigate. Nothing could be plainer or more convincing.

The Assembly passed on Thursday by a large majority a resolution changing the requirement for the passage of Constitutional amendments. It was doubtless greatly influenced by the almost ridiculously small vote on the amendments last submitted and adopted. When only about 8 per cent. of those participating in an election take the trouble to vote upon such propositions at all, the process of submitting them seems farcical to many. It has been the general experience with the referendum that the affirmative sentiment on a proposition has a far better chance of casting its vote than that on the other side. Hence, it is urged, the vote does not fairly represent popular sentiment, and all sorts of proposals can be carried by the vote of a small minority of the population. On the other hand, the system provided by the resolution which on Monday passed the New York Assembly, making a majority of the total vote at the election necessary to adopt a Constitutional amendment, would render it almost impossible to carry any proposal submitted. This may be, in some ways, a good thing, but its consequences should be carefully considered. For instance, in 1903, when the canal question was submitted and carried, the affirmative vote was 673,010. The vote in the State election for judge of the Court of Appeals that year was 1,412,788. So, had the canal improvement involved a Constitutional amendment, it would have been defeated under the proposed new rule.

Whatever the final count may show, in the contest between Governor Davis and Senator Berry of Arkansas, the people of that State have really succeeded in electing a Senator by popular vote. Heretofore the Senatorship has been an issue at the party primaries, but members of the Legislature have been bound only by the vote of their separate constituencies. This year, however, Governor Davis and Senator Berry agreed to abide by the result of the Democratic primary throughout the State, and the campaign has been as active as the Montague-Martin primary fight in Virginia last year. Davis has won on the face of the returns, and if he proves to be the Legislature's choice for Senator, it will be another triumph for the "stormy petrel" school of statesmanship. In his five campaigns in Arkansas—one for Attorney-General, three for Governor, and the present one for the Senatorial nomination, Davis has made 2,000 speeches, has had half a score of personal encounters, and has ridden roughshod over all kinds of opposition in

his party. He is charged with the responsibility for the reduction of a normal Democratic majority of 70,000 to less than 20,000. As a "cornfield" statesman, Davis is proud of his sharp angles, and has even made political capital out of his rebuke by President Roosevelt.

Milwaukee made the first trial the other day of the primary law passed after such a long fight. A great many citizens, according to the report, could not seem to get through their heads the distinction between the primary and the regular election. The newspapers were full of warnings against ticket-splitting on the analogy of the November election, for Republicans, seeing the name of a high-class aspirant for the Democratic nomination, were prone to put his name on their own ticket. This difficulty will doubtless disappear when the law becomes more familiar. But, for one thing, it shows strikingly how little the people knew about the process of making nominations under the old system. That is, they failed to understand the primary because the old caucuses, which theoretically corresponded, were absolutely unfamiliar to the average citizen. For a first test of the new law, the Milwaukee primary vote of 43,000 seems to us encouragingly large. While the figure is some 13,000 short of the vote in the last Presidential election, it is estimated by the *Evening Wisconsin* to be at least 16,000 greater than the attendance at the 1904 caucuses.

In fifteen inches of closely printed amendments to the football rules, we cannot find a line that is likely to improve the game. The penalties for various kinds of foul play are greatly increased, but umpires practically never enforced the old penalties. Reducing the defensive line from seven to six largely offsets the ten-yard rule. The requirement that the two rushlines must stand separated by the longest diameter of the ball is practically incapable of enforcement. An additional blind umpire is provided, but no rule is drawn by which he shall be forced to penalize foul play when he sees it. Minor prohibitions, such as that of hurdling, of kicking the ball on the ground after a kick, actually makes against a more open game. We believe there were just two ways of handling the football situation. An experimental trial of the ten-yard rule without further modification might have resulted in restoring the open game of the eighties. Failing that, there was nothing to do but to reform the game altogether, by reverting to Rugby of the English or New Zealand type. As things stand, complicated rules become more complicated than ever, and old measures of reform that have proved ineffectual are merely reduplicated.

Ever since the Taff Vale decision established the financial responsibility of unions for damage inflicted in their behalf, labor leaders in England have been seeking legislative immunity for union funds. The present Liberal Government would virtually grant this immunity, by stipulating that unions shall be held in damages only for acts clearly authorized by their governing bodies. As a matter of fact, it is practically impossible to prove that acts of violence in a labor war are thus authorized. Common sense suggests that a certain responsibility attaches to the body that profits by the lawless deed. However, the labor members were not thus satisfied. They require not merely practical immunity for union funds, but an explicit and comprehensive release from any financial responsibility whatever. This, as the Attorney-General remarked, would confer an exceptional exemption upon the proletariat, and cries from the Laborite benches showed that precisely this was demanded. With this claim of superiority to the organic law we are only too familiar in America. Only the other day, Mr. Roosevelt had to administer a sharp reminder that one class of labor cannot set itself up as privileged beyond the rest. In England the unions have long been conducted along saner and more business-like lines. The objection of the labor members at Westminster to a measure giving more than they can reasonably demand, indicates a change of temper, and hints of a future closer alliance between British unionism of the opportunist type and the more advanced forms of Socialism.

To have changed front, or retreated outright, twice in one week, is what the new English Government may be charged truthfully with having done. Perhaps the very size of its majority gives it, with Falstaff, an alacrity in sinking. At any rate, the Colonial Office lost little time in capitulating to Natal. Of course, Lord Elgin rode off on the excuse that, if the government of that colony had kept him fully informed about the proposed execution of natives, he would not have intervened at all, but that is palpably a lame horse. The obvious inference is that the Colonial Secretary acted hastily, and then reversed himself still more hastily. Even more significant as a sign of divided counsels and of vacillation is the yielding of the Premier to the Labor party in the matter of giving trades unions what is practically immunity from the law. There may be good arguments for this course, but for Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman to turn round after the stand made by the Attorney-General and incontinently go the full organized-labor length, certainly looks like poor management and unstable convictions.

PERILS OF "CORNFIELD" LAW.

Senator Tillman has invented a new phrase to describe the attitude of men like him who make light of legal and Constitutional difficulties in legislation. He is, he says, only "a cornfield lawyer." As such, however, he gayly sallies forth to rail at the arguments of real lawyers like Senators Knox and Spooner on the Republican side, and of Messrs. Bailey and Culberson on his own. His pose is simply a variant of the old one of pitting rough-and-ready horse sense against legal expertness. The President is reported to be much taken with this method of Tillman, who continually refers to himself as merely a nurse in charge of Mr. Roosevelt's baby. There has been, the dispatches say, much hearty laughter and applause in the White House for "cornfield" law.

It has, however, its drawbacks and perils. Some of them were exposed by Senator Knox in his weighty speech on March 28. The gist of it was a plea for the courts as against the cornfield. The ex-Attorney-General contended that care and skill are necessary in drafting intricate legislation, with a knowledge of the legal effect of the language used, and some faint effort to shape your important bill so that it will not be judicially found null and void. Mr. Knox made an unimpassioned legal argument. He did not attempt to answer Tillman with homely or proverbial phrases. Had he done so, he might have reminded the South Carolina Senator, who is so willing to "chance" it with the Constitution, that it is better to be sure than to be sorry.

The Administration has just emerged from an experience with cornfield law which ought to make it a little more chary of that article. It was in the finest manner of a cornfield jurist that the President set about the prosecution of the Beef Trust. He cheerfully mixed up friendly inquiries with criminal indictments—the Bureau of Corporations with the Department of Justice. To a man with a hoe in a cornfield, this would have seemed an eminently fitting procedure. First get your suspected magnates confidentially to admit their evil deeds, then prosecute them. But the courts have had a word to say about that. There is such a thing, they held, as recognized criminal process. The Government had ignored it. It had made the defendants immune without intending to do so. They could not be first asked to make privileged communications and then tried on the strength of them. Thus one little decision by a judge upset that entire cornfield prosecution.

The cornfield lawyer, we see, is in danger of taking his own impulses, good and unselfish as he is sure they are, for sound legal maxims and trusty guides to action. They have a way,

however, of proving not to be. The President strongly urged Congress, for example, to undertake the Federal regulation of life insurance. He perceived that the subject was one of national interest; hence it was clear to him that it was one under national jurisdiction. That, be it said with all respect, was the cornfield view. The legal and Constitutional view—and, incidentally, the conclusive view—has just been enunciated by the Judiciary Committee of the House. Its members did not settle the question with a hoe or cultivator, but studied law and precedent and the decisions of the Supreme Court, and came unanimously to the conclusion that the course recommended by Mr. Roosevelt was plainly unconstitutional.

What is the present status of the argument on the railway-rate question? Such, we think, as to call imperatively for the amendment of the Hepburn bill. The best lawyers of the Senate have been heard from—Foraker, Rayner, Bailey, Culberson, Spooner, and finally Knox. There is practically a consensus of opinion among them that the Hepburn bill, as it now stands, is unconstitutional, and would surely be so held by the Supreme Court. Most of the Senators named have offered amendments intended to cure the legal vices of the bill. These relate chiefly to the want of due provision for a judicial review of the findings of the Interstate Commerce Commission. On this point Senator Knox spoke with much emphasis and confessedly great authority. He has himself introduced an amendment which would remove the Constitutional objection while safeguarding the rights of both shippers and carriers, and providing for a speedy hearing and determination of all cases. Why is there any hesitation in taking the advice of so sound a lawyer, so well-approved a prosecutor of oppressive combinations? Apparently, because the word has gone out from cornfield and cottonpatch that they must have the Hepburn bill, the whole bill, and nothing but the bill. Pass it unamended, is the cry of the men who, like Senator Dolliver, profess to be directly inspired by the President. But this foolish attitude is becoming daily more discredited. The weight of argument is too heavily against the cornfield. And there seems now to be little doubt that an amendment guaranteeing judicial review will be adopted by the Senate, and that the President will accept it with the assurance that it is the thing above all others which he from the first ardently desired.

OUR CONSULAR DISGRACE.

The confidential report in regard to our former consuls in the East, published on Thursday, must everywhere evoke a sense of shame. This is not the testi-

mony of a sensational writer, or of a politician in search of notoriety, but a sober, official statement filed with the Secretary of State by an Assistant Secretary of State detailed to make a special investigation. From Mr. Peirce's report it is plain that the most important consular representatives of the United States in the Far East have been either common drunkards or grafters—men who accepted office merely to fill their own pockets, legally or illegally. The official report recalls the statement of the American admiral who, returning from a long cruise in European waters, declared that half our consuls in the Mediterranean had been in jail, and that the other half ought to be there. Conditions in the East seem to have been fully as bad, for if ever men ought to go to jail, they are official representatives of this Government whose misconduct reflects upon the entire country.

Americans not in the habit of travelling abroad have often wondered why it is that the United States has stood so low in foreign estimation. They even rejoiced that the favorable outcome of the Spanish war seemed to assure this country a better position. But if any one factor has helped to give foreigners a poor opinion of the United States, it is our wretched consular representation. Of this the proof is unending, but rarely has it been put before the public so concretely and authoritatively as in Mr. Peirce's report. The more one studies it, the more the wonder grows. If there is anything that the Americans are proud of, it is their reputation as business men. Yet, with all their eagerness to obtain foreign trade, to show the back-number German, the frog-eating Frenchman, or the antediluvian Hungarian a trick or two along trade lines, they have supinely sat by and let the politicians run the foreign business of the country with men of low calibre such as no reputable mercantile house in this country would think of employing.

Because the men most severely criticised by Mr. Peirce are now out of the consular service, or because a reform bill is on its way through Congress, it must not be thought that nothing remains to be done. While there has been much progress, there are many consuls who do not reflect credit on the country. There was the one at Coburg, for instance, who turned the consulate into a disreputable resort, and made every exporter contribute a "sample" for use in furnishing the consulate or to be disposed of for the benefit of the consul's pocket. Careful investigation would have shown the man's unfitness for office before his appointment. The State Department removed him for the "good of the service," but Mr. Roosevelt, in the eyes of the Coburgers, added insult to injury by appointing as his successor that Saylor who obtained unenviable notoriety by

trying to defraud the State of Pennsylvania when serving in its Legislature, and who was officially denounced by the Governor. There are plenty of other cases on record in which the President or the State Department connived at the appointment of unfit men. Mr. Peirce found that no less than eighty-two charges were on file against Consul-General Goodnow of Shanghai. Yet Mr. McKinley knew precisely what kind of man Goodnow was when he selected him. Delegations expressing the best moral sentiment of Goodnow's home town went to Washington and protested against his appointment, on the ground that his character was detestable.

Mr. McKinley, indeed, was responsible for all the men who figure most prominently in Mr. Peirce's *chronique scandaleuse*. McWade at Canton, who was "disgracefully drunk" on one public occasion, and, while "boisterously drunk" on another, swore and wanted to fight because some one said "hurrah for Ireland," and who was believed throughout China to be notoriously corrupt, bore McKinley's commission. So did Oscar F. Williams, who was appointed to Singapore after a blemished record elsewhere. Mr. Greener of Vladivostok, "whose habits are said to be extremely bad," and Levi L. Wilcox at Hankow, who "cannot be said to be a useful consular officer," are, we believe, also of the McKinley régime. Their careers and the dishonor they have brought on the country ought to facilitate the passage of the Consular Reform bill, now in conference. Much of the "starch" has, unfortunately, been taken out of this measure; as it now stands, it is merely a changeling substitute for Mr. Root's hopeful child of the early session. Yet, such as it is, it is a great step forward, and it is bound to raise the tone of the service. The blight of politics will be largely lifted. Neither permanency of tenure nor regular promotion is guaranteed, but these may be established by special acts as time goes on.

Most of the civil-service reform features have been cut out by the Congressional spoilsmen. Much can be done by the President, however, to offset this. He can prescribe regulations precisely as he and his predecessors have done for the civil service, and he can absolutely decline to appoint men who, although able to pass examinations, are still not men of the highest character. Consuls and consul-generals are still "demanded" by Senators and Representatives, but President Roosevelt ought to be able to decide for himself. Secretary Root is certain to continue his agitation for a complete reorganization of the service, and a readiness on the part of the Administration to do its full duty would complete the reform it has so well begun.

SKY-SCRAPING TARIFF TAXES.

The Republican delegation from Massachusetts in the House of Representatives, having failed by ordinary methods of petition and argument to obtain the free hides and other tariff concessions it needs, has now announced its purpose to make itself a centre for all the revision sentiment in Congress. Without being over-sanguine, the members hope to attract to themselves, a few at a time, other disaffected Republicans, a handful who want free lumber here, a group who want the steel schedule revised there, and so on, until, possibly in some far-off happier day, the scale may turn and the revisionists compel some sort of action. It is a more courageous thing to do than the public unfamiliar with the ways of Washington understands, and, even if it does not yield results in the statute-book, it gives new and public backing to an important cause.

We noticed the other day the humorous petition of a small group of Michigan manufacturers for the imposition of a 125 per cent. duty on wooden shoes, in order that this promising, though hitherto unheard-of, American industry might be able to hold its own with foreign competitors. So far as we have yet seen, no one has regarded this request as anything but a joke. The Protective Tariff League is thus far silent, and Mr. McCleary, the higher-duty advocate, has not said a word. Apparently, such of our citizens as still wear wooden shoes are welcome to buy them in whatsoever country turns them out most cheaply. Yet the band of Massachusetts revisionists can, if it chooses, point to a large number of duties higher than the wooden-shoe makers' request, and to some quite as preposterous.

To be specific, there are twenty-one different commodities on which there were collected in the last fiscal year duties equivalent to more than 125 per cent. ad valorem. There were fifty-seven instances of duties equivalent to over 100 per cent. The facts in these cases are obtainable by any one from the reports of the Bureau of Statistics in the Department of Commerce and Labor. Mr. John Sharp Williams tabulated the particular data for use in a recent speech. Of course, there is no clause in the Dingley law which mentions any such rates. These are all specific duties or specific duties combined with moderate ad-valorem rates; but the rate actually charged may be figured from the simple ratio between stated values and duties paid. Moreover, tobacco and spirituous liquors, where a high tariff tax is laid to offset the revenue tax, are not included.

There have been extreme instances, as in the case where mica, under the turn of the law, was made to pay 4,000 per cent. on its commercial value. But

these are interesting chiefly as curiosities, and the highest duty regularly exacted is, according to this table, a bare 251.73 per cent. This was collected on vanillin, the active principle of vanilla, of which \$423 worth in 1905 paid \$1,064.80 duty. Vanillin, it is true, is not a necessity of life, and perhaps even a prohibitive tariff would not be generally felt. But shoddy, which affects the poor only, paid the equivalent of 250 per cent. Silk handkerchiefs of a certain grade paid 221.27 per cent., and dress facings or skirt bindings, not bleached, dyed, or printed, paid 201 per cent.

The articles on which duties between 200 and 125 per cent. are collected may be briefly given here, with the understanding that in most instances the rate stated applies only to a particular grade of the product, and in some cases to unimportant or unusual ones.

Per cent.	Articles.
185.76	Bay rum.
165.11	Dress goods.
159.32	Blankets.
157.52	Dress goods.
151.93	Cloths, woollen or worsted.
151.07	Plate glass.
143.72	"Other manufactures of wool."
141.02	Plushes and other pile fabrics.
140.29	Plate glass.
140.05	Plushes and other pile fabrics.
139.7	Boric acid.
138.06	Yarns.
136.44	Plate glass.
130.70	Flannels for underwear.
129.80	Mineral waters.
125.70	"Other manufactures of wool."
125.44	Blankets.

We have stopped this list advisedly at the rate of duty asked for in the ridiculous wooden-shoe petition. Is there a single one of the schedules above mentioned which could be defended on its merits on the floor of Congress, or anywhere else? Is there one of those duties which a nation not made up of lunatics would even think of levying if it had the task of making a tariff *de novo*? And if it is preposterous to establish a new 125 per cent. duty for the benefit of a few struggling Western wooden-shoe factories, is it not just as preposterous to retain similar duties for the benefit of other interests which have grown great on tariff favors? We have cited merely the extremes, the cases about which most men, whatever their political opinions, would agree without hesitation. But to grant that the 251 per cent. duty on vanillin differs only in degree of extortion from a dozen of the schedules on the commonest and most necessary articles of life is a logical step from which Republicans draw back. The very men who laughed at Mr. Williams's "banana speech" will not extend and apply his reasoning.

DIFFICULTIES OF RETRENCHMENT.

The case of the English Liberals just now illustrates a tendency of government which is more and more coming to prevail all over the world. We mean

the fact that public expenses are steadily rising, and that it is steadily more difficult to cut them down. A distinct item in the Liberal election programme was retrenchment. The Tories were accused of having pushed the public outlay, not only above all precedent, but beyond all reason; and the people were asked to elect a Government that would economize. Well, the economies in prospect are beggarly; the new objects of expenditure already pressed upon Parliament make lavish demands. The army bill, into which the Liberals were going to thrust so deep-cutting a knife, they have been able to pare down by only \$50,000. Meanwhile, projects urging new appropriations of many millions are insistently urged upon the Government. The Chancellor of the Exchequer reminded the House the other day of the promises with which his party had taken office, and then ran over the list of measures calling for great and fresh outlay advocated by Liberals within the seven days past, ending with the sarcastic: "Pretty well for one week."

Yet this same Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Asquith, in addressing delegates from the Conference of Taxing Authorities, agreed that, in municipalities at least, it is impossible "to cut down or arrest your expenditure." The reason he gave was as follows:

"We are constantly adopting a higher and, I may call it, a more exacting standard of municipal life. Sanitation, education, and a number of other interests of that kind, the due attention to which we all feel to be bound up with the real prosperity and welfare of the community—these are things which you cannot put upon one side or postpone without serious risk to the interests which our municipal bodies are intended to represent. Therefore it is of paramount importance that some additional reservoir should be found upon which, in justice and equality, drafts can be made to meet the ever-growing necessities of the community."

This is undoubtedly true. It is as true of American as of British cities. It is true of our State and national governments as well as our municipal. * In all of them we believe that great retrenchment could be effected. The public business is extravagantly or wastefully done. Almost anywhere, a vigorous and trained administrator in public office could cut off sinecures and stop leaks. Yet his most unremitting efforts would not prevent the gradual rise in the scale of public expenditure. It mounts not alone absolutely, but relatively; and so far as we can see, is bound to do so for some time to come. Every extension of the functions of government is costly, yet the people are everywhere demanding that they be more and more extended. What they keep on demanding they are pretty certain to obtain, at the end of the chapter; and if they get a bigger tax bill along with it, they should not grumble—but they do.

This was Mr. Asquith's point, and it is the chief one to bear in mind in the

whole business. Expenditure goes with taxes, and as the former mounts so do the latter. Indeed, from the statesman's standpoint, the increase in taxes is more directly significant than the increase in their outlay. He has to find the added revenue. This means either a screwing up of old taxes or the discovery of new ones. In either case the result, for the taxpayers, is the same. They are called upon to surrender a larger and larger part of their income to the State. This is really the practical aspect of the matter which it is primarily more important to understand than any question of theoretic Socialism. Hence there was point in the remark of the old professor of political economy to the eager young fellow who came asking what he should study in order to grapple with the questions of municipal and government ownership, socialistic experiments, and what not. The reply was: "Study taxation."

The duty of counting the cost thereof is too often overlooked in plans for enlarging and improving the activities of government. Yet it is vital to the whole question. Take the proposal that public schools should give the children of the poor at least one nourishing meal a day. Its latest eloquent advocate here distinctly dismisses the question of expense. Into that, he has not thought it worth while to go. He is sure that it "can be managed." Perhaps it can, but note what happens when the same proposal is brought up in Parliament and reduced to pounds, shillings, and pence. The Minister of Education, Mr. Birrell, had exact estimates of cost prepared, and showed that the total would be too great for the Imperial Exchequer to undertake at present. The step may yet be taken in England, as we presume it will be in American cities, but it certainly will make necessary new forms of taxation.

Taxes will surely become more burdensome as the functions of government are multiplied. That is a truth which ardent social reformers should not attempt to deny. They will have to pay more themselves; so will all their friends. The old professor was right. Fundamental to every new governmental experiment is the question where the money to carry it on is to be found. We are not now saying that such experiments ought not to be made, but they should be made with our eyes open to the fact that taxpayers will have to foot the bill.

THE MOROCCO SETTLEMENT.

Last Saturday, just a year after the Kaiser's sensational visit to Tangier, the Algeiras Conference arrived at the following agreement: The Sultanate is to be policed by troops under French and Spanish officers, who are jointly answerable to the Sultan and to the dip-

lomatic corps at Fez. In the important havens of Tangier and Casablanca there will be both French and Spanish officers; Spain will have the exclusive officering of Tetuan on the Mediterranean and of Larache on the Atlantic, France that of the four Atlantic ports, Mogador, Safi, Mazagan, and Rabat. This police agreement holds for five years. On the financial side, France gets a substantial plurality interest in the new Morocco bank, holding three out of fifteen shares, of which no other European nation controls more than one. Such, in brief, is the settlement of a highly delicate, and at times fairly ominous, dispute.

In the compromise, France gets practically all her concrete claims, but her pretensions to exclusive jurisdiction in Morocco are disallowed; Germany obtains full acceptance of her abstract championship of internationalism, but is denied all but the very smallest part in the actual administration of Morocco. One may fairly say that both the ideas of Germany and the policy of France have prevailed, with the important difference that France has renounced the monopolistic claims set up by Delcassé with the assent of Madrid and London, and has accepted a temporary but renewable trust as mandatory of the European Concert. Germany has made it plain that she must be consulted in Mediterranean matters, and has called a halt to limited agreements like that between France and England. On the other hand, the conference has shown that if the Powers admit the German principle of internationalism, they are disinclined to invite the practical aid of Germany in the Mediterranean. In fact, the most striking diplomatic result of the conference is the demonstration of the isolation of Berlin. The new friend, Russia, was as cold as the old ally, Italy, towards any plan that put Germany even indirectly in control of the police or the bank. Only Austria saved Germany from standing alone before united Europe.

Since Germany has gained all she contended for as a matter of principle, why does she appear to have suffered a rebuff? The reason must be found in the sadly mixed motives, the sudden shifts of ground, the wearisome delays that characterized all the actual negotiations of Germany before and during the Algeiras conference. Had the Kaiser made his altruistic intentions clear and unmistakable from the first, he might to-day claim an unclouded victory. Had he maintained his pose as the champion of the open door and the enemy of particularism as regards weak Powers, he would to-day be as unmistakably the hero of the play as poor M. Delcassé is, in retrospect, its villain. As a matter of fact, the position of Germany was from the first unhappily ambiguous. Professedly the tribune of Europe, Ger-

many fell under the unfortunate suspicion of taking up that policy of grab which France, by dismissing M. Delcassé and by consenting to the conference, had expressly disavowed.

Of course, anything like justice between nations is usually obtained in such tortuous ways. National motives are apt to be mixed. Yet it is clear that if the German Foreign Office had taken a passive attitude in the conference, any settlement whatever must have been hailed as a victory for German diplomacy, while no settlement was likely to have conceded more to France than she now gets. The honors are distinctly with M. Rouvier. His withdrawal of the extreme claims made by M. Delcassé, his frank, opportune, and moderate statement of the minimum programme of France, his patience under the ambiguous and obstructive policy of Germany, constitute an admirable example of straightforward, considerate, and enlightened diplomacy. Equally praiseworthy was the moderation of the French press—the better sort, we mean—throughout the controversy. Everywhere was shown a disposition to meet Germany, if possible, and to discountenance talk of war.

The general feeling that Germany has met with a check is exaggerated, perhaps, by a natural confusion between the diplomatic manners and the diplomatic aims of the Wilhelmstrasse. To do a disagreeable duty as disagreeably as possible is no royal road to popularity. It would be interesting, for example, to inquire how far the impression of German defeat is due merely to the bristling and masterful personality of Count Tattenbach. Such a temperament always gives the impression of intending more than it really intends. Yet it is fair to add that at no time has the German Government pushed the point of national prestige to perilous extremes. Retrospectively, the Kaiser and M. Delcassé must share a common regret that the conference was not called very promptly and conducted in a non-contentious spirit. M. Delcassé must see how little France had to fear from the appeal he combated so stubbornly, and the Kaiser must perceive how hopeless it always was to seek from Europe in council any admission of especial German prerogative in Morocco.

THE NEW MONT PELÉE.

FORT-DE-FRANCE, MARTINIQUE,
March 11, 1906.

The better part of three years has elapsed since I last visited the great mountain whose name is still in the mouth of every inhabitant of this beautiful, even if desolate, Isle of France. *Elà bien, le volcan?* It is the old inquiry which has now become almost sympathetic with the people, but which has lost none of its significance in consequence of the recent earthquake disturbances. On February 16 the capital city

of the island saw thirty of its loosely constructed habitations marked out for repairs, heaps of débris stood in the place of former walls, and the affrighted people were camped in the *sarac* which surrounds the noble statue of Josephine. Some two dozen or more earthquake tremors have been registered since that date, and night-fall still sees many of the less courageous departing for the *campagne*, where low wooden buildings, perched on breezy hill-tops, place one, if not necessarily outside of the field of the seismic movements, at least beyond reach of the much-dreaded *raz de marée*. Naturally enough, Pelée is held largely responsible for the recent happenings, and the observations on the volcano that are at frequent intervals sent down from the observatory of Morne des Cadets, are eagerly scanned and studied. But these observations tell only that the mountain is "calm," or is "covered," or that it "disengages much vapor." Mont Pelée has, in fact, entered upon a period of repose, and not since June last has it given signs of a recrudescence of activity. It is true that its smoldering dome is still far from being a picture of quiet nature, but the luminous points have entirely disappeared, and one hears no more of that ominous rumbling and roaring which is so happily expressed by the French word *grondement*.

Pelée is to-day much less active than is Vesuvius, and it has again taken its place among the beautiful objects of nature. Vegetation is slowly but steadily creeping up its deeply rifted slopes, the desert sands have already largely disappeared beneath the new growth of tree-fern, grass, and moss; and even on the smoldering dome diminutive oases of green are being wrapped about the fuming fumeroles. It would be difficult to find a more enchanting view than that which overlooks this mountain from the Morne des Cadets. It is the Bay of Naples over again, both in mountain form and in color—lacking, of course, nearly everything that is indicative of man's activities, but exuberant in all that a bountiful tropical nature offers. The *grands bois* of Martinique, with their giant tree-ferns, bamboos, and broad-leaved cannas as the distinctive physiognomic vegetable types in a wilderness of melastomes, magnolias, cecropias, and figs still cover the rugged mountain slopes, and only here and there in the deep valleys have they yielded place to fields of cane or to plantations of cacao and coffee. The forests are silent, perhaps more silent than they were before the cataclysm of Pelée, and only at rare intervals is the life within made known through the exquisite piping tones of the little bird that is here called the *siffler de la montagne*.

Three years ago Pelée was a mountain of almost exactly the height, in its normal summit, of Vesuvius, but it was then capped by a giant obelisk of rock which carried its apex a full thousand feet higher. To-day this obelisk, except in jagged teeth that mark where it was implanted on top of the volcano, no longer exists, and, with its destruction, the geologist has noted the disappearance of one of the most remarkable features of the earth's surface. Vast blocks of rock, some of them hardly less large than the *casas* of the villagers who at one time looked up with awe to

this stupendous monument of nature, lie scattered about in the wilderness of débris that helps to fill in the former crater-basin, and they read well the story of disruption and fall. I made the ascent of the volcano on the 27th of February, with the hope of being able to descend into the crater-basin and of studying these rock débris close at hand. Until now the Pelée tower had repelled direct scientific investigation, and the constitution of its rock-mass remained necessarily within the domain of hypothesis. To-day the fires of the mountain have been drawn, and approach is made possible.

I selected for my descent into the crater a position on the northwestern border, where the bounding-wall had been reduced to a height of perhaps not more than a hundred feet, and where the angle of slope hardly exceeded 65 or 70 degrees. A sharp wind swept over the knife-edge, which we were obliged to straddle, but with some caution we passed the line of first offence, and before long reached the crater-floor—the *rainure* of the French Scientific Commission. Here we were placed directly in face of the giant dome, which still carries at its summit the jagged remains of the former obelisk. The day, unfortunately, was not so favorable as one might have wished for. Clouds passed and repassed in seemingly endless masses, and only once did the dome disclose itself in its entirety. But that one occasion revealed a splendid spectacle—the giant mound of rock-débris, here and there scarred by lines or ridges of solid lava, rising to a height of about 500 feet, and from its sides puffing out noiseless streams of heated and sulphurous vapors. Carefully measuring the stability of the loose-lying débris, we slowly crawled up the steep slope of the dome; my associate, at whose *habitation* I had passed the fateful night of August 30, 1902, giving me the advantage of his personal guidance. He had attempted this same ascent a few weeks earlier. We reached a position on the dome which clearly overlooked the bounding-wall of the crater, and beyond which only bad counsel would have dictated further progress. This was the limit of our journey.

I had attained the object of my mission—the determination of the structure of the rock-mass which formed the great tower of the volcano. A vast andesitic block, as solid and compact as the more ancient masses which constitute the core of the island of Martinique, it gives evidence of having been heaved up from the deep interior in its present condition, firm and rigid—a monument of the Titanic force of the awakening volcano.

ANGELO HEILPRIN.

NAPOLÉON, KING OF ELBA.

PARIS, March 14, 1906.

M. Paul Gruyer has just published a very fine volume, illustrated with engravings, on a subject which cannot fail to draw attention—"Napoleon, King of the Island of Elba." We see on the first page a fine reproduction of the well-known picture by Paul Delaroche of Napoleon at Fontainebleau, before his departure for the Island of Elba. The Emperor is sitting in a chair, bareheaded, with his high boots still

on, looking tired, grave, full of dark thoughts; his sword lies beside him on a table. He wears his gray coat, already legendary, without any decoration.

On the 11th of April, 1814, it was agreed, in Article III. of the treaty signed in Paris with the approbation of the Provisional Government of France—by the plenipotentiaries of the Allies, and by Caulaincourt and Marshal Ney for Napoleon—that the Island of Elba, "chosen by Napoleon as his place of residence, should form, during his lifetime, a separate principality, which he would possess in full sovereignty and ownership." An income of two millions. Inscribed in the Grand Livre of France, was assigned him. The King of Elba was to receive all the honors due to crowned heads, but he ceased to be a French citizen. On the 20th of April, after the famous adieux to the Garde in the court, Napoleon left Fontainebleau in a post-chaise. All the incidents of his journey are well known: he was accompanied by a number of people, among them four commissioners of the armies of the Allies—an Austrian General Kohler, the Russian General Shuvaloff, the Prussian General Walburg-Truchsess, the English Colonel Sir Neil Campbell. The Emperor went aboard the *Undaunted* at Saint-Raphaël, the very place where he had disembarked fifteen years before, on his return from Egypt. He landed at Porto Ferrajo in the island where he was to remain till the 15th of February, 1815.

"What is," asks M. Gruyer, "and what was the Island of Elba, and what did the Emperor do there during these ten months? What was the existence of the man who was yesterday at the summit of the Occidental world, and in twenty-four hours had become something like the sovereign of the Val d'Andorre or of San Marino?" Napoleon's sojourn on the Island of Elba is a period which has never much detained historians; they have been more occupied with the events which were taking place at the time in France. "The Island of Elba," says M. Gruyer, "has remained a mere name. It evokes no idea, no precise image, like Saint Helena and Corsica, which call up Hudson Lowe and the familiar house at Ajaccio." M. Gruyer had the curiosity to visit Elba. When he arrived there, in this *terra incognita*, he imagined he should find some bare rock fronting the sea, and was surprised to find a varied and picturesque surface. Civilization has not much affected it, and he had the pleasure of viewing the same houses, the same rocks, which Napoleon had often seen. Even the Italians seldom visit Elba, though the distance from Porto Vecchio or Leghorn is very short. Porto Ferrajo, where the traveller lands, was founded by Cosmo de' Medici in 1548; its bay is very fine, and resembles that of Naples. The first scream M. Gruyer heard on landing was that of a man who ran by his side: "Signor! la testa di Napoleone," and who conducted him to the church where, in an ebony coffin, he saw the bronze head of a dead Napoleon, a copy of the mask which Dr. Antommarchi took in plaster at Saint Helena after the death of the Emperor. The inhabitants of Elba pay annual honors to this tomb, with its bronze mask, on the 5th of May, the anniversary of the death. The coffin is placed on a catafalque surrounded by wax candles, and in the presence of the official authorities a solemn mass is said.

At the Town Hall is kept the flag which Napoleon adopted, white with a red band, on which are three bees. In the Council Room there is a copy of Gérard's fine portrait, sceptre in hand, a gold laurel crown on his head and an ermine mantle on his shoulders. In the library is found what remains of the Imperial Library—a motley collection, where, side by side with various scientific and military works, occur Montaigne, La Fontaine, 'Don Quixote,' Voltaire, the 'Cabinet des Fées'—forty volumes containing fables and legends.

Napoleon was received with much enthusiasm in the island. The inhabitants were proud to welcome him and to become his subjects. The Emperor landed in his green uniform, with white breeches; he wore the Legion of Honor and the Iron Crown of Italy. He had put on his "petit chapeau" the new cockade of Elba. Behind him were Gens. Bertrand and Drouot. A Te-Deum was sung in the church, and the Emperor had the Town Hall for his first residence. In his first conversation with the notable inhabitants, he astonished them by his acquaintance with all the resources of the island and its needs; he knew how much the salt tax yielded annually, how many fishing boats were employed; he was acquainted with the date of foundation of all the cities and villages, he was familiar with the topography, with the altitude of the mountains. At Fontainebleau he had before starting asked for all the official documents concerning the island, and had mastered them with the rapidity and concision to which he was used. He had studied all the maps and books concerning the island, and among others a 'Journey to the Island of Elba,' published in 1808 by Arsène Thiébaud. The day after his arrival he visited the iron mines, famous for the excellent quality of their ore. He made in turn a visit to all the communes, constantly accompanied by two chamberlains, two officers, a captain of gendarmerie, the sub-prefect Balbiani, whom he had appointed General-Intendant of the island; the mayor, and the presiding justice of Porto Ferrajo, by the faithful Bertrand and the English Commissioner Campbell. Everywhere he was received under rustic triumphal arches with showers of flowers. He examined with care all the forests. He rode ten hours a day without seeming to experience any fatigue. He chose for his residence a house which was called the Palace of the "Mulin." He had it rebuilt and enlarged, and was his own architect. The furniture was partly sent from the Palace of Piombino, which had belonged to his sister Eliza. There are in M. Gruyer's volume two interesting photographs, one of the garden and the terrace of the Mulin, with their fine view over the sea; another of the great drawing-room, now entirely empty.

Napoleon was allowed to keep a small detachment of his Guard. The old soldiers joined him in the island; he added to their number a battalion of Corsicans, and after a short time had a little troop of 1,502 men, which did not seem alarming to the Powers that had seen him at the head of great armies. He had besides a small fleet. He had about four millions of francs when he started from Fontainebleau; the French Government was to ensure him an income of two millions of francs. With these resources he had to

cover all the expenses of the administration of his small kingdom. He entered on his new rôle with his usual ardor; issued decree after decree, created establishments of all sorts, improved the coast trade, uniformed his soldiers, fortified the coast, gave an entirely new life to the sleepy little island. His activity was partly instinctive and natural; partly it was a mask with which he covered further designs. He wished to create in the government of the Bourbons and the Allied Powers the belief that he had really abdicated, had renounced his dreams of ambition, and had retired to his little island to live in peace and quietness.

There was a witness who kept a constant eye on him, and who alone remained to watch the formidable exile, viz., Col. Campbell, the English commissioner, who had fought in Portugal and Spain under Wellington. He fulfilled his mission as a gentleman, but took daily notes of all he saw. Napoleon heard at Elba the news of the death of Josephine; he was expecting day after day Marie Louise, but she did not appear. He had a visit from the Countess Walewska, whom he had first known in Poland, who had borne him a son and had joined him at Fontainebleau. She was at first taken for Napoleon's wife. She gave him news of the Empress. She could stay but a short time, and, crossing the island on horseback during a gale, she reembarked for Italy at Porto Longone. Soon afterwards arrived at the same port his sister Pauline Borghese. While she was with him he learned that Talleyrand had proposed to the members of the Congress of Vienna to transport Napoleon to a safer place than Elba. Several islands of the Atlantic Ocean were mentioned, among them Saint Helena. The Emperor affected not to be moved by the alarming information he received from different quarters. "Europe," said he, "will not do such a thing. From the point of view of England especially, Saint Helena above all is impossible. I should be too near India. And, after all, I can defend myself here for two years." In reality he was alarmed. An unknown visitor, who stayed only two hours with him, seems to have precipitated the crisis. Napoleon was afraid of being kidnapped or even assassinated; he received warning and confidential letters from many sources; he became very restless. M. Gruyer enters into the most minute account of the life he led, going from place to place incessantly, occupied with a thousand details, receiving visits, trying to keep his little army disciplined, and to get recruits in the place of the old soldiers who were leaving him.

There can be no doubt that the idea of a return to France never left him for a moment; he had kept the secret to himself from the day when he left Fontainebleau, but it became more and more imperious in the solitude of Elba. The agitation in which he lived was factitious; his little government of Elba was a mere comedy. He was determined to try fortune once more. The return from Elba is well known; history has followed Napoleon from the day when he landed with his small troop on the French coast at Antibes to the battlefield of Waterloo, and to the island of Saint Helena.

M. Gruyer's volume is a very interesting

contribution to Napoleonic literature. It has been published with much care by Hachette, and its illustrations bring vividly before the reader the incidents of Napoleon's brief sojourn in the lonely little island of the Mediterranean.

Correspondence.

MEYER'S WORK ON RAILWAY RATES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In connection with the review of Prof. Hugo R. Meyer's book on Government Regulation of Railway Rates in the issue of the *Nation* for March 8, may I call the attention of your readers to a review of the same book in the January-February number of the *Archiv für Eisenbahnwesen* by Dr. Alfred v. d. Leyen, a recognized authority upon the subject of transportation, who has written much concerning both American and German railways? This review, which is devoted mainly to a consideration of the portion of the book relating to Germany, shows that Professor Meyer's treatment, under cover of an apparent erudition, is quite superficial, and that he is in many places guilty either of deliberate misrepresentation or of inexcusable ignorance. I feel constrained to call attention to this review because the book has been widely read in railroad circles, and has been accepted as a true statement by those who are either unable or unwilling to test its assertions by an investigation of the facts.

FRANK HAIGH DIXON.

HANOVER, N. H., March 27, 1906.

POOR RICHARD'S POETRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I add a postscript to my letter in the *Nation* for March 22?

A good deal of the poetry printed in Poor Richard's earlier almanacs was derived from 'Witts Recreations,' a humorous miscellany published in London in 1640, and reprinted, under the title of 'Facetiae,' in London in 1817. This volume accounts for ten pieces of verse in each of the first two almanacs, for six pieces in the issue for 1736, for the two "fantasticks" set down for September and October, 1738, and for a dozen of the shorter epigrams printed between 1735 and 1746. In some cases the space which the almanac devoted to poetry ("on the heads of the months") was filled by combining two four-line epigrams, not always on closely related subjects. Examples may be seen in the verses for August and November, 1734, and for August and September, 1736.

Another volume which ought to be mentioned here is 'A Collection of Epigrams,' printed for J. Walthoe, second edition, London, 1735. This collection seems to have supplied Poor Richard with about twenty pieces of verse (eight for 1737, five for 1738, two for 1741, and three couplets for 1739). And perhaps it is worth while to add that the verses for March, 1737, and January, 1739, occur in 'The Muses Choice: or The Merry Fellow,' London, 1754.

W. P. MUSTARD.

HAVERFORD, PA., March 29, 1906.

Notes.

One of the features of the International Exposition to be held at Milan next autumn will be the meeting of the first Historical Congress of the Italian Risorgimento, which has been organized under the direction of the most eminent historical authors and students in Italy. The congress will open on November 1, and, besides sessions at which papers and discussions will be in order, there will be an exhibition, chronologically arranged, of documents, letters, and memorials of all kinds concerning the Risorgimento—the period, that is, between 1796 and 1870. Committees have been appointed for each section of Italy and for France, England, Germany, and the United States. The delegate for the United States is Mr. William Roscoe Thayer, who will be glad to communicate with any persons who may have documentary or other material which they may be willing to lend to the congress. His address is No. 8 Berkeley Street, Cambridge, Mass.

A Life of Sir Henry Irving, by Bram Stoker, is to appear in the autumn with Macmillan's imprint. Other announcements by this firm are a Life of Lord Leighton, in two volumes, by Mrs. Russell Barrington; a Life of Walter Crane; and 'Vacation Rambles in London,' by E. V. Lucas.

We welcome the seventh issue of Mr. James Clegg's handy and valuable 'International Directory of Booksellers and Bibliophile's Manual,' whose further description of itself merits quotation *in extenso*: "Including lists of the Public Libraries of the World, Publishers, Book Collectors, Learned Societies and Institutions, Universities and Colleges; also, Bibliographies of Book and Library Catalogues, Concordances, Bookplates, etc., etc." And if we proceed to analyze the etcetera, we must add as novelties in the present triennial revision Bookbinders in London and the Provinces; Record and Literary Searchers, Translators, and Indexers; Colonial and Foreign Learned and Scientific Societies; Literary Agents; South African Public Schools; and American Educational Institutions. But we can assure our readers that there is much more beside for one who carefully examines this compact thesaurus. It should be in every public library. Mr. Clegg's address is the Aldine Press, Rochdale, England.

Two more volumes have just appeared in the charming series of "Les Classiques Français" (Dent-Putnam). One is George Sand's 'Mare au Diable,' the other a selection from Sainte-Beuve's "Lundis," 'Profilis Anglais'—the first profile being of Franklin, and the others of Mary Stuart, Gibbon, Chesterfield, and Cowper; solid entertainment. Each volume has the author's portrait, a biography with appreciations, and a choice bibliography. In Sainte-Beuve's, one may read a French translation of Wordsworth's "Scorn not the Sonnet."

Mr. Eustace Ball, a writer by no means inexperienced in this sort of composition, has issued a small guidebook to Rome (London: Black; New York: Macmillan), about which the most that can be said is that it is perhaps no worse than some others of the same sort. The author had apparently several of the best-known guidebooks in English open before him, and

has drawn upon them, but to no useful issue. No one ought to write even briefly upon the remains of ancient Rome who must pick up miscellaneous scraps of information from various, and often discordant, tertiary authorities, and trust to luck about his reconstruction of them. The result is sure to be an incongruous and misleading conglomeration, and to abound in blunders that are sometimes ludicrous. The publishers are perhaps responsible for inserting a plan of the Forum which is labelled as up to date (1904), but is merely a slight modification of J. H. Middleton's plan, and even leaves the Comitium and the Basilica Æmilia still buried.

No two artists could well be more unlike, either in person or in production, than the subjects of two of the latest of the Knackfuss "Künstler-Monographien," Anselm Feuerbach and Constantin Meunier (Lemcke & Buechner). Feuerbach never tired of painting his own handsome face, and, from the pretty boy of 1846 to the splendid swell of 1878, it is always the romantic ideal of an artist that he represents. Of Meunier we have only photographs vividly presenting the home-spun ugliness of an elderly workman. Yet the romantically beautiful Feuerbach was that most tiresome of created beings, a German classicist; the plain Belgian artisan was a true Romanticist of great individuality and power. To look over the plates of Feuerbach's pictures and the preliminary studies for them is to be appalled at the result of the misapplication of so much knowledge; to glance at the cuts after Meunier's sculpture is almost to wonder, at first, whether any academic knowledge is necessary to an artist of native force. Of course the truth is that Meunier's work is much more learned than it looks, and that Feuerbach's learning is much less sufficient than it seems. The remedy for any revolutionary feeling into which one may be betrayed is a course of the old masters or of the greatest Frenchmen.

E. B. Greenshields has made an oddly composite book of 'Landscape Painting and Modern Dutch Artists,' which is published by the Baker-Taylor Co. It begins with a brief history of landscape painting, goes on with a discussion of the theories on art of various artists and critics, and then, at page 127, comes to the real business of the book, which is a presentation of the work of seven Dutch painters, Bosboom, Israëls, Mauve, the three Marissos, and Weissenbruch. The gist of the first part is the elaborate proof of what, at this day, seems hardly worth proving, viz., that art should be "subjective." The result of the method is to give the impression that not only are these Dutchmen fine painters, but that they are the heirs of the ages, for whom the world has been waiting—the first truly great landscape artists. Fine painters they are, but there were heroes before Agamemnon.

'Bruges and West Flanders' (London: Black; New York: Macmillan) is one of the typical books of travel, illustrated in colors, which modern methods of color-printing have made common. The text, by G. W. T. Omond, accompanies thirty-seven water-colors by A. Forestier, interesting in subject, and sound, if not distinguished, in drawing; but, whether

through the fault of the artist or of the process of reproduction, rather violent and sometimes quite inharmonious in color. In especial there is a prevalent raw purple which we find most distressing.

Prescott F. Hall's 'Immigration' (Henry Holt) is the first of a proposed series of volumes dealing with the political and economic problems of the day, which is to be brought out under the editorial direction of R. C. Ringwalt. The author is secretary of an association formed to advocate the restriction of immigration. It was time for a new book upon this subject to appear, since Mayo-Smith's treatise is already out of date and represents a point of view long outgrown. Mr. Hall has made a careful study of a mass of materials, and has produced a readable work containing a large amount of valuable information. He advocates various additional restrictions upon immigration, but does not take a narrow or illiberal attitude towards the question. Especially to be commended is the discussion of the racial effects of immigration. The book would make an even more favorable impression if the footnotes did not sometimes indicate a lack of discrimination in the use of materials. It may be accepted, however, as a trustworthy general guide; and to college debating societies—which, we suspect, the editor of the series has especially in mind—it should prove a godsend.

'Studies in American Trade Unionism' (Henry Holt), edited by Professors Hollander and Barnett, is a volume of essays by members of the seminary of economics of Johns Hopkins University. The several papers deal with the organization, government, finances, and policies of leading labor unions, and conclude with an essay upon the Knights of Labor and the American Federation of Labor. They are based, in considerable part, upon original researches made possible by a private gift of money and a grant from the Carnegie Institution. Though confined to particular features of particular trade unions, the data dealt with are comprehensive and typical; so that the result is a substantial contribution to our knowledge of trade-union structure and functions, even though the discoveries of the investigators do not always have the charm of novelty. The preface, by Professor Hollander, is devoted largely to the consideration of economic method, in which the only thing that calls for criticism is his apparent conviction of the importance and necessity of such a discussion. Whatever may or may not have been true some twenty years ago, it seems unnecessary to-day to remind us that safe theorizing in matters economic must be based upon "qualitative data," amassed as deliberately and laboriously as chemical or physical data are collected by the natural scientist. It is needless also to dwell upon the "unwholesome relation which existed between political economy and the laboring class for the first three-quarters of the nineteenth century." However, if any of our readers need reassurance upon either of these points, they will find comfort in the excellent studies brought together in this volume.

Dr. Alfred A. Woodhull's 'Personal Hygiene' (John Wiley & Sons) contains within 200 pages the substance of lectures on personal hygiene given at Princeton "in

the last few years." It embodies in the first place a short but practical and sufficient account of the anatomy and physiology of the different organs and functions of the body, and then considers, one by one, the reasons that should guide us in exercise, in food, in bathing, in our choice of clothing, and in reference to stimulants and narcotics. The position which the writer takes in reference to these questions is temperate and sensible, and while total-abstinence reformers will not find support for their extreme position, both they and all moderate-minded people cannot fail to be pleased to note in the author's arguments a decided leaning toward pronounced temperance.

In the 300 pages of Dr. Edward Curtis's 'Nature and Health' (Henry Holt & Co.) very interesting subjects are taken up. The reason why we should ventilate our houses, and the arguments for and against open windows at night; the chemical principles and the social considerations that should guide us in the choice of food and in the manner of serving it; the alcohol and tobacco question; the risks to which we are exposed as regards our sight and hearing; how we should keep the body and mind properly exercised without fatigue; even the problems of living and dying, and many other questions of like sort, are all touched upon in a practical fashion. The style of the writing is easy and unconventional, possibly at times a little too colloquial.

A dictionary is a book which does not lend itself to brief reviewing, and it is perhaps enough to say that 'Black's Medical Dictionary' (Macmillan) is well executed, and that the illustrations are interesting and well chosen, at least from the physician's point of view. It and the two foregoing works are all unusually good presentations of practical medicine for those who wish to be their own physicians. Black's Dictionary, indeed, goes further than this, and furnishes good food for many a practitioner or studious layman.

The Essex Institute of Salem, Mass., has recently published a valuable monograph on the 'Physical Geography, Geology, Mineralogy and Paleontology of Essex County, Massachusetts,' the result of twelve years of patient work by John Henry Sears, curator at the Peabody Museum, in Salem; a quarto of 417 pages, with many plates and figures, and a geological map. The rocks are elaborately described according to modern petrographic methods, and their intricate structure is unravelled. Glacial geology is also treated in detail, and a discussion of postglacial subsidence is presented, with the conclusion that it is still progressing at the rate of about two feet in a century. Although fossils are rare in this district, careful search has found some specimens in the ancient (Cambrian) rocks of Nahant and in the post-glacial (Leda) clays at various points. The list of minerals includes over 100 kinds.

The learned world has waited forty-five years for the appearance of the second volume of the Catalogue of Sanskrit Manuscripts in the Bodleian Library. The first volume, by Aufrecht, did not contain all the titles (some being accidentally omitted) of the manuscripts then in the library, so that a nucleus of material for the second volume was at hand even before the first

volume was published. In the meantime there have been many accessions, and the present volume, begun by Professor Winternitz and completed by Mr. Arthur Keith ('Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS. in the Bodleian Library,' Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde), makes good the deficiencies of the first volume and continues the work to date. Among new acquisitions are the famous Bower MS. and the Weber Fragments (of the fifth century), several MSS. of the tenth and eleventh centuries, and nearly five hundred MSS. of the Hultzsch collection. The importance of the present volume will therefore be apparent to all Indic scholars. It should be in every public and university library. The imprint of the Clarendon Press is a guarantee of the care with which the work has been done, and the excellence of its typography.

Dr. Paul Cohn of the Industrial Museum in Vienna, who visited this country in 1904 as a member of the International Jury of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, and prepared an important report to the Austrian Handelsministerium on the Chemical Industries at that Exposition, has collected his observations on American educational affairs in a pamphlet, 'Das Bildungswesen in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika' (Vienna: Hölder). The bulk of his notes is devoted to the colleges and universities, and gives as clear a view of the difference in administration and organization of the various kinds of our higher educational institutions as could well be expected in the small compass of forty-seven pages. The author has evidently made very careful studies, and might well have filled a much larger volume to advantage, had he been so inclined. Especially do the introductory and concluding chapters, on "The Creation of the American Nation" and on "The Future of the American Nation," seem too condensed. The latter contains a much-needed warning to "Europeans who pay a short visit to the United States and want to see and study everything on the run, and who turn up their noses at everything because everything is not arranged according to European notions, which they regard as 'higher.'" A well-made index—not a common thing in a German book of this size—enhances its value as a book of reference.

The report of the Geographical Society of Berne for the year 1903-04 contains an account by Dr. W. Volz of his impressions of the Sandwich Islands, together with some facts in regard to the fauna and flora. Other articles are by Dr. M. Groll on the Oeschinensee, a Swiss mountain lake, and an interesting paper on weather prophets by Prof. E. Brückner. The earliest whom he mentions were the priests of Apollo at Delphi, who for money would foretell the weather at any required time. The Roman astrological forecast, in which Cicero, Virgil, and Tacitus were believers, was obtained by dividing the year by seven, the remainder indicating the planet which ruled the weather for that year. The planet for 1906 is Venus, whose characteristics are an excess of moisture and heat. In treating of modern weather prophets, Brückner confines himself to the Germans, and especially to the late Rudolf Falb.

The first number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for the present year opens with

the route notes of an expedition for the geologic study of the Bolivian Andes headed by Prof. G. Steinmann. Among the places of interest visited in the heart of the mountains was Cochabamba, a flourishing city of 30,000 inhabitants, the centre of a rich and well-cultivated region, the granary of the land. Rittmeister Isachsen summarizes, in a series of quotations from the reports of Arctic explorers, beginning with our Capt. Hall of the *Polaris*, 1871-3, the condition of the palæocrystic ice, and concludes that the existence of glaciated land to the north of Greenland and America is highly improbable. Some of the results of an investigation of the four atmospheric strata of the Atlantic, a continuation of the work of the Prince of Monaco by Professor Hergesell, are given by the editor, Professor Supan. The departure is chronicled of Dr. Sven Hedin on his new expedition, the expense of which is borne by King Oscar, E. Nobel, and others. After an examination of the deserts of Eastern Persia, he will visit the sources of the Indus and Brahmaputra Rivers, and from thence go to the great lake region of central Tibet. A German scientific expedition has sailed in the steamer *Planet* to determine, among other things, the temperature and salinity of the waters of the Bismarck-Archipelago, as well as to analyze the gases suspended in the sea-water and to study the atmospheric strata.

Prof. Edward G. Bourne, chairman of the Historical Manuscripts Commission of the American Historical Association; Mr. Worthington C. Ford, of the Library of Congress; and Dr. J. Franklin Jameson of the Carnegie Institution, have issued jointly a four-page leaflet of suggestions respecting the transcription and printing of historical manuscripts. The suggestions are eminently sensible, and follow as a rule the accepted practice of the best modern editors. The leaflet should be carefully studied by all whose duty or pleasure it is to prepare historical documents for the press.

The American Committee of the Egypt Exploration Fund, which was constituted in 1902 upon the discontinuance of the long-standing relation between the Fund and its active representative in this country, has now resigned, and, after July 31, 1906, the London Committee will itself assume direct control of the work of the Fund in the United States. Mr. Edward R. Warren and Miss Grace I. Gay, who will serve respectively as treasurer and secretary for America, will continue the Boston office of the Fund in the Pierce Building, Copley Square.

The University of Aberdeen has issued invitations to certain academic bodies to send delegates to her celebration next September of the happy completion of her fourth century of life. The older of the colleges that now form the single university was founded in 1494; but the birthday party was postponed till it could be held in the new academic buildings, which are now completed. The precise date has not yet been fixed, apparently in expectation of adjusting it to accord with the convenience of King Edward, whose presence at the festival is hoped for.

The authorities of the Royal Library in Berlin, of which Professor Harnack is now the head, have appointed a commission,

consisting of recognized experts in the department of incunabula, or imprints of the fifteenth century (the total number of which is estimated to be about 30,000), in order to furnish an exhaustive historical and literary description of these precious publications, and thus eventually prepare a *Gesamtkatalog*. It is estimated that the work will take about ten years, and that the total cost will be nearly 100,000 marks. For the first year's work 12,000 marks has been appropriated.

The town of Montmorency in France has opened an international subscription towards erecting there a statue to J. J. Rousseau. A century and a half ago this genius was composing on the spot his masterpieces, the 'Nouvelle Héloïse,' the 'Contrat Social,' and 'Émile'; and this fact, with the ineffaceable memories of the Hermitage of Mme. d'Houdetot, Mme. d'Épinay, and the Maréchale de Luxembourg, will forever make Montmorency a literary and political Mecca. Subscriptions of any size may be addressed to M. le Receveur Municipal de Montmorency.

Announcement is made of a meeting commemorative of Paul Laurence Dunbar, the well-known colored poet, lately deceased, in the vestry of the Rev. Dr. Hale's church in Boston next Sunday. Col. Higginson will read some of Dunbar's short poems; some of his best songs will be sung; and there will be addresses. Contributions will be solicited for a modest memorial to be erected at the poet's grave in Dayton, Ohio.

—The *Atlantic* is particularly strong this month in reform literature, taking the term in its better meaning, and not in the sense of the yellow journalist. Willard G. Parsons pleads for more definite aims in education, and especially for the rescue of cultural courses of study from would-be scientific methods, which are appropriate only to vocational courses. Mrs. Justine Bayard Ward writes of the movement back towards the Gregorian Chant as the appropriate form of church music, confining herself chiefly to the music of the Catholic Church, where the movement has the earnest support of the Pope. Her chief argument is that appropriate church music must pass the test not only of its beauty as music, but also of its capacity to weld harmoniously with the spirit of prayer. From this point of view, she holds, the modern forms, with all their beauty simply as music, are far inferior to the Gregorian. George W. Alger presents the necessity for reform in the substance and methods of the criminal law, if it is to win the respect of the masses and answer present social needs. He does not strengthen a good argument, however, by attributing lynching almost wholly to disgust with the non-enforcement of the law against murderers, since lynching is and has been most prevalent in a class of cases in which the law would work with all due speed if left to itself. In fact, the only great danger in such cases would be that the law would proceed too swiftly to ensure proper identification and proof of guilt. In reviewing a group of books on the Far East, John W. Foster makes use of the occasion to plead for justice in our dealings with China, while William S. Rossiter of the Census Bureau asks for reform in the publication and distribution of public docu-

ments. Alexander D. Noyes writes of railway securities as an investment, and here, too, we have an incidental plea for reform, in the matter of publicity of accounts on the part of enterprises appealing to outside investors. Four short stories, three poems, and a few miscellaneous topics save the predominant note from danger of monotony.

—The *Century* opens with the hitherto unpublished narrative by Lady De Lancey of her experiences during the last days of the life of her husband, Col. Sir William Howe De Lancey, who was mortally wounded in the battle of Waterloo. In 1825 the manuscript was shown to Scott, who said that he had never read anything which affected his feelings so strongly. Dickens read it in 1841, and referred to it as an astonishing and tremendous account, the perusal of which constituted an epoch in his life. The narrative is introduced by the comments of Scott and Dickens, contained in letters written to Capt. Basil Hall, Lady De Lancey's brother. The harrowing features of the account, however, are personal, and involve no general description of the horrors of the battlefield. It is hard to see that the reproduction of Romney's painting of Lady Hamilton as a Bacchante illustrates the sad narrative in any fitting way, notwithstanding such mention of Lady Hamilton as it contains. Christian Brinton contributes a short paper on Constantin Meunier, the sculptor of the laborer, with a half-dozen reproductions. Mr. Bryan's manifold energy attempts, in four pages of space, to reconcile the individual and the socialist, as two workers who are both striving for the good of society and may each have something of value to contribute.

—*Harper's* opens with another English paper by Mr. Howells, an account of a visit to Great and Little Brington, famous as the residence of the Washington family after the vicissitudes of the civil war had driven them from Sulgrave. The science article of the month, by Robert Kennedy Duncan, borders a little on the sensational in setting within very narrow limits, about nineteen years hence, the date when the starvation of the human race is to begin, provided some new source of nitrogen for fertilizing purposes is not discovered in the meanwhile to take the place of the saltpetre beds of Chili, then to be depleted. But, of course, there is hope left, as nitrogen-fixing microbes innumerable are waiting for the job, and the raw material immerses the whole earth at the rate of about 33,880 tons over each acre. The Senate may as well go on with the Rate bill discussion, and there may even be time to revise the tariff before the nitrogen supply is wholly exhausted. Professor Lounsbury comes to the defence of usage against the pedants again, this time in behalf of the very common employment of the present tense with future significance, and of a direct object with a passive verb. An extremely interesting bit of biography is given by two ladies who for eight years, 1889-1897, kept house for Herbert Spencer, and have felt disconcerted that all that has been said of him comes either from great men who care only for his philosophy, or little men who can see only his quaint peculiarities. A youthful disappointment in love, lingering still after fifty years, is one of the incidents related, and will doubtless serve as a basis for much

theorizing as to the subsequent course of his life.

—In *Scribner's*, Mr. Brownell's appreciation of Cooper challenges special attention. Cooper's early environment rendered his literature inevitably unliterary. It was perhaps even a piece of good fortune that he did not know the meaning and value of literary art, for he was thus left unhampered by a consciousness of his artistic deficiency. No writer of one-tenth his ability would to-day commit his faults, but the vitality and largeness of his conceptions triumph over all defects. The "stock" Indian generally supposed to derive from Cooper, is not Cooper's at all. His Red Men are at once Indian to the core, and thoroughly individualized as well. A whole section is devoted to a spirited defence of Cooper's women against the shafts of Professor Lounsbury, "who is the wittiest of writers, and, in consequence, a little at the mercy of a master faculty." As to the phenomena of nature, "nowhere else has prose rendered the woods and the sea so vividly, so splendidly, so adequately—and so simply." The assertion of critics that Balzac derives largely from Cooper is taken as striking evidence of the vivid reality of Cooper's characters, for nothing but a very energetic vitality could impose imitation on a romancer conspicuously noted for his originality. Again, Cooper was distinctively, but rationally, American. It is slander to attribute his democracy in Europe to pure idealism, and explain his disgust with demagoguery on returning home, as due to an irascibility which changed his opinions. The discriminating American must naturally be an advocate of democracy when abroad, and a critic of it at home, as shown by the example of Lowell, for instance. That some of Cooper's work is inferior is willingly admitted, but his good work is so abundant and so good as fairly to earn negligibility for such exceptions as 'Mercedes of Castile' and 'The Ways of the Hour.' Mr. Brownell's paper, and the discussion which it has already set in motion, are likely to result in a distinct revival of interest in Cooper's works.

—Mr. Duncan Campbell Scott, whose stories and poems have given pleasure to many readers of *Scribner's Magazine*, now appears in the rôle of a historian. Besides acting as editor of the "Makers of Canada" Series (Morang), he contributes to this work its latest volume, the life of John Graves Simcoe. Sometimes a transition from the domain of pure literature to that of biography involves but a slight wrench, since so many lives are neither more nor less than a glorified romance. In the present case, however, the hero's career offers little of the picturesque. Simcoe did, indeed, see much active service during the Revolution, and won personal recognition from George III. by his activity in leading the Queen's Rangers; but there is nothing in his personal or professional experiences to make him stand out brilliantly from many soldiers and colonial administrators of his time. For example, he possesses neither the individual interest nor the historical importance of Lord Dorchester, with whom his views clashed on more than one occasion. Here, as Mr. Scott points out, fortune was unkind, not that Simcoe failed to reach Dorchester's eminence (for that is

a separate question), but that, like his father before him, circumstances prevented him from realizing public expectation. With health impaired by the hardships of guerrilla warfare, he came to Upper Canada as its first governor under the Act of 1791. His chief function during the next five years was to organize according to the terms of recent legislation a region whose inhabitants were drawn largely from the stern and unbending Loyalists of New York. Simcoe, as a Tory of somewhat more pronounced views than Lord Eldon, enjoyed the opportunity thus afforded him of guiding Upper Canada into the paths of conservatism. Gifted with excellent parts, he added thoroughness and geniality to his other qualifications for a post which imposed considerable responsibilities. *Non tibi sed patriæ* was the self-effacing motto of his family, and Mr. Scott considers that he lived up to this lofty sentiment by accepting an office which made heavy demands upon his health while at the same time retarding his promotion in the army. Simcoe's limitations as a colonial governor are to be found in his lack of sympathy for democratic aspirations, and in a stubbornness which sometimes degenerated into unworthy suspicion of his opponents. The crisis of 1793 disclosed the nature of his trials more clearly than they are illustrated by any other episode of his career in Canada. Considering that his part of the British dominions was certain to be attacked by his old foes, the Americans, he took the most active measures for the defence of the frontier, and probably would have welcomed a brush with Wayne. At the same time, his official letters show how inferior he was to Dorchester in control of temper and in power to take a broad view of the problem. This lucid and well-ordered sketch by Mr. Scott exhibits a sturdy and active Briton whose resentments were seldom kindled save by those whom he looked upon as enemies of his king, his church and his nation.

—One of the latest publications of the British Academy is Dr. F. J. Haverfield's 'Romanization of Roman Britain' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde). The author is the leading epigraphist of the United Kingdom; and it is on archaeological data, not on considerations suggested by law or philology, that he bases the results of this paper. According to most English writers the Romans remained as distinct from the Britons as the modern English from the Indians. They left them almost as Celtic as they had found them. Dr. Haverfield maintains, on the contrary, that, in the south and east at any rate, Britain shared the fortunes of the other western provinces. Before the age of Constantine, Romanization had obliterated the differences between conquerors and conquered in material civilization, in politics, and in language. Relying on the evidence of extant remains—those at Silchester for instance—Dr. Haverfield points out that the public buildings in the civilian area, the private houses, the decorations and household furniture were almost always on the Italian pattern. Art, it is true, shows survivals of Celtic traditions, notably in the New Forest urns and the Castor ware from the banks of the Nen. But, in spite of exceptions, Dr. Haverfield holds that the rule stands that the

external fabric of life was Roman. He thinks that this was true also of the legal and economic framework. The province must have been made up of Roman municipalities, of imperial estates, and, most numerous of all, of tribal "civitates" constituted on Roman lines. Again, he shows reason for believing that Latin was spoken in the towns not only by the upper classes, but, judging from the Silchester graffiti, by the lower classes as well. Possibly, too, it may have been the language of the rich in the country districts. While he thus lays stress on the Romanization of Britain, Dr. Haverfield denies that there, any more than in other provinces, it uniformly and at once destroyed all traces of national sentiments and fashions. Under the superimposed layer of Roman culture there must have remained, at least in the remoter districts, a native element which, if not actually Celtic, was capable of atavistic reversion. The departure of the legions was followed not only by an English invasion, but, in the military areas, in Cornwall and Devon, in Wales and the North, by a Celtic revival.

"SALLY."

The Dissociation of a Personality: A Biographical Study in Abnormal Psychology. By Dr. Morton Prince. Longmans, Green & Co. 1906. Pp. x, 569.

In the scientific study of abnormal psychology, in which France was the first to take the lead, she is now being outstripped by America, as regards both the intrinsic interest of the cases observed and the manner in which their observation is recorded. A year or two ago Drs. Sidis and Goodhart described the strange case of "Mr. Hanna," which stands alone in the completeness of the amnesia it exhibited, and in the wealth of suggestion it contained for psychologists, moralists, and philosophers in general (cf. *Nation*, No. 2067). And now Dr. Prince regales us with the full biography of the "Beauchamp" family, of which he had already published a fascinating but somewhat tantalizing sketch five years ago, in the Proceedings of the Society for Psychical Research (Part 40). The present work is intended as a preparation for a more technical and theoretic study yet to come of the problems of abnormal psychology (for the purpose of furthering which we are glad to note that Dr. Prince and Dr. Sidis are also establishing a special journal); but it is complete in itself, well written, and, despite its length and some little repetition, of absorbing interest, even to such as usually confine their reading to lighter literature. But even those who take up Dr. Prince's book in this spirit will find the fortunes of the "Beauchamp family" a first-rate romance of the "detective novel" order, whose interest clusters round the search for "the real Miss Beauchamp," and the question, "Who was Sally?"; and we can assure them that the secret of the first is well kept to the end, while the problems presented by the latter will probably exercise psychologists for years to come.

"The Beauchamp family," it is now high time to explain, was a group of secondary personalities into which the original "Miss Christine L. Beauchamp" was dissolved in 1893, as a consequence of a severe nervous

shock. As finally added up by Dr. Prince (p. 465), their total number amounted to no less than sixteen, all occupying, or inherent in, the same body, and coming to the fore as the vicissitudes of life compelled, or the ingenuities of experimentation evolved them. The chief actors, however, in the dramatic history of this very distracted family were only three, to wit, "B I," "the Saint," who came under Dr. Prince's care in 1898 as a pronounced neurasthenic; "B IV," the irascible "Idiot," so called because she awoke in 1899 with no knowledge of the past six years; and "B III," the irresponsible but continuously conscious and ever-entertaining "Sally."

The medical problem, of course, was to reconstitute the original "Miss Beauchamp" out of the fragments into which she had been shattered, and thereby to cure the neurasthenia of "B I." For both purposes hypnotism was resorted to. All the personalities could be hypnotized and given suggestions to remember each other's lives; and the theory was that if "B I" and "B IV" could be thus amalgamated, they would have so great a working majority of the psychic processes connected with "Miss Beauchamp's" body that "Sally" would be suppressed. That such methods are effective was proved by the Hanna case; but the results here were different. When "B I" and "B IV" were made aware of each other's nature and past, they were shocked and disgusted, and so far from agreeing joyfully to recombine, like "Mr. Hanna's" two selves, "B IV" resisted her own extinction and formed a coalition with "Sally," who also declined to be "squeezed" back into subconsciousness. How together they resisted Dr. Prince's curative suggestions, baffled him for years, and nearly defeated him, how they fought and tormented each other, and afflicted their common body, must be read in full in the chronicles of the "Beauchamp" family. It would not be fair to Dr. Prince to betray the secret of his triumph and the dénouement of his tale. Suffice it to say that in the end "the real Miss Beauchamp" was reintegrated, and that she now seems capable of maintaining herself so long as she is not subjected to too much emotional disturbance. When this happens, "B I" and "B IV" resume their interrupted lives and dissensions for a season, and "Sally" her pranks. Still, with "therapeutic suggestion at regular intervals to offset the wear and tear of her life," "the real Miss Beauchamp" can manage to exist in comfort. At the time of writing, Dr. Prince tells us, she had persisted without a relapse for six months.

Thus the restoration to existence and health of the real Miss Beauchamp has settled the medical aspect of the case. For the psychologist, however, "Sally" remains over as a unique and fascinating problem. Who or what was "Sally"? She came upon the scene when the hypnotized "B I" (= "B II") was allowed to rub her closed eyes until she got them open; and ever after was able periodically to control the organism until "the real Miss Beauchamp" was restored, when not even automatic signals could any longer be elicited from "Sally" to prove her continued existence. But though thus born into the external world so late as 1899, she at once claimed to have existed internally long before. Indeed, she professed to go back to "Miss

Beauchamp's" earliest infancy, to have had memories and points of view distinct from those of the primary personality from the first, to have experienced and watched her whole life, though impotent to act, to be continuously and unsleepingly conscious of all that happened to the organism, to know everything that the other personalities did, and everything that all but "B IV" thought. She had, moreover, great power over them; she could "bring" either "B I" or "B IV"; she could instruct them by visions or afflict them with illusions and hallucinations (positive and negative), often of the most painful and terrifying sort (as, e. g., the grisly story on p. 484), even when she was not in control of the organism.

Now these are large claims to credit on the *ipse dixit* of so enigmatical a being, and Dr. Prince shows commendable caution in his mode of presenting them. At the same time, they were verified so far as they could be tested, and Dr. Prince not only plainly shows that he himself was convinced of their substantial truth, but also succeeds in imparting this conviction to his reader. The latter's sympathies, indeed, will mostly be with "Sally." She was by far the most interesting member of the "Beauchamp" family, and her racy and unconventional letters and amusing pranks contribute vastly to the literary value of the book. Scientifically, also, "Sally," despite her dislike of "psychological rot," was a godsend; without her priceless information and co-operation, Dr. Prince would hardly have achieved success. Morally her self-sacrifice in assenting to her own extinction (p. 487-9) is pathetic, and her inability to resist "B IV's" bribes (pp. 499-501) most human. And so Dr. Prince's suppression of her seems a little cruel. His theory about her was that she was the subliminal or subconscious self, in the sense of "a co-acting mind of which the primary self is not aware," and a phenomenon of dissociation. We venture to think this far from proved. "Subconsciousness" is clearly nothing but a provisional label put upon perplexing facts. And as a subconsciousness "Sally's" case is certainly unique; it goes definitely beyond anything that has so far been indicated as to the existence of double consciousness and hypnotic selves (cf. 49). Nor can she be simply disposed of as pathological. It was no doubt a disturbance of the normal psychological structure that gave her an opening; but the evidence goes to show that, even when suppressed, she continues her latent existence, and manifests again whenever the pressure is relaxed. She must therefore be regarded as a normal constituent also of the healthy "Miss Beauchamp." And if it be true that the "abnormal" arises only out of the perversion of the "normal," does not the whole case strongly suggest that something analogous to "Sally" exists normally in all of us, though we become aware of our subconscious double only when a disturbance of equilibrium enables it to manifest itself through the various forms of automatism?

Psychologists, indeed, have yet to realize how entirely "normal" certain dissociations of personality really are. That our dream self, e. g., is normally dissociated more or less from our waking self, is proved by our rapid forgetfulness of dreams. But even this is not all, for the dream-self does

not make its own dreams; it is the victim of an unknown "maker of dreams" behind the scenes. And the "Beauchamp" case seems strongly to suggest that what came to the surface as "Sally" is really this mysterious dream subconsciousness. She confesses that she is conscious of the dreams of the other personalities, and that what she thinks they sometimes dream (p. 332); she has the power to produce dream-like visions and hallucinations in them even in their waking life. She herself, on the other hand, neither sleeps nor dreams (pp. 340, 376). Dreams, moreover, have in general just such a character as might be given them by a childish, sportive, teasing imp like "Sally," relieving the tedium of a pent-up existence by a fantastic play with the contents of our consciously or subconsciously noted memories. "Sally" does not, indeed, confess to quite so much, but this can hardly be regarded as untruthfulness, seeing that apparently she was never asked about her relation to the dreams of the other personalities. It is to be hoped, therefore, that when Dr. Prince discusses the theory of the case, he will consider the possibility that in "Sally" science has at last caught and dragged to light the dream-constructing imp that lurks in all of us. And whether or not Dr. Prince can solve the mystery of "Sally," only an incorrigible skeptic could doubt that he has shown the "Beauchamp" case to be in truth, as he says, "a perfect gold mine of abnormal psychology"—a mine, it may be added, likely to be fraught also with much enlightenment as to the normal functioning of the human soul.

HOLMAN HUNT'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.—II.

Pre-Raphaelitism and the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. By W. Holman Hunt, O.M., D.C.L. With 40 Photogravure plates and other illustrations. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

It was while drawing in the British Museum that the acquaintance with Millais began, which soon ripened into a warm friendship, and was one of the completely fortunate events of Hunt's life, for no changes of fortune or differences in aim and style of work altered the affection of those two friends. Hunt gives a most attractive description of the talented young fellow whose success began at the early age of eight, when he carried off the medal of the Society of Arts. Millais's facile talent and luck were extraordinary; he had also every encouragement and aid of adoring parents to further in every way his progress. This especially struck Hunt as remarkable, his own experience of the family attitude towards art being exactly the reverse. The pages in which Hunt tells of his relations with the Millais family are perhaps the most charming in the book: the mother finding subjects for her son, making up costumes for his pictures, looking up questionable points for him; the father ready to sit for various figures in the same work in any disguise, the devoted and admiring elder brother and the delightful boy full of happy self-assurance and high spirits, never demurring at difficulties, because certain of success in the end, sure of getting his own way at home by affectionate flattery and bluster, however wayward and absolute he might be. This

friendship was of great importance and encouragement to Hunt at that juncture. The young men consulted each other about the pictures they were carrying on at home while they were still working in the Academy.

Illumination came from an unexpected channel. While Hunt was copying the "Blind Fiddler" of David Wilkie, a visitor, looking over his shoulder, remarked that Wilkie's system was to thoroughly finish each bit day by day without any dead coloring. The speaker, Claude Lorraine Nursey by name, had been a pupil of Wilkie's. He subsequently showed his own work, which he carried on in this manner. This proved to be of immense value to Hunt, for he recognized that the purity of color of the quattrocentist painters was due to the surety of touch which fresco-painting exacted. From that time he practised this method, his taste for clear forms and tints developing the while. The reading of Lanzi further convinced him that "all the great Italian artists, including the cinquecentists, had grown in a training of patient self-restraint imposed by masters who had never indulged their hands in uncertainty and dash, and that the wise and enthusiastic pupils had delighted in the devotion of humility till far on in their maturity. The dandelion clock in the 'St. Catherine,' by Raphael, and the flowers—notably the purple flags—in the 'Bacchus and Ariadne' of Titian, were edifying examples of this spirit in the great masters, wilfully overlooked by modern students."

These convictions were shared with Millais, whose ambition was to seek out a truer method of interpreting nature in his pictures, putting aside received rules. The young men's discussions on these new aims and ideas, their impressions of the work of old masters, and other kindred topics, are given in conversational form. Holman Hunt conscientiously tells us in a note (what must occur to every one) that these cannot be vouched for as verbally exact, although the substance of the arguments remain vividly impressed on his mind. It was also the reading of 'Modern Painters' by an Oxford graduate which suggested the high mission of the artist, who, like the prophets of old, is appointed by God to carry a sacred message to the world. Keats's poems fell into Hunt's hands at this time, and filled his brain with images which inspired illustrations. From "The Eve of St. Agnes" he chose the subject of the escape of Madeline and Porphyro from the castle as the subject of his next Academy picture, and communicated his enthusiasm for Keats's poems to the less-impressionable Millais, who also found congenial themes for pictures in them. In their observation of the methods of old masters, the young men used their judgment untrammelled by accepted authority, coming to their own conclusions. Raphael's "Transfiguration," for instance, which at the time held such a transcendent position, was condemned as a signal step in the decadence of Italian art for its artificiality of arrangement and the pompous posturing of the Apostles. The fellow students at the Academy, hearing these unorthodox criticisms, called Hunt and Millais "Pre-Raphaelites" as a *reductio ad absurdum*—a designation which Hunt accepted as appropriate.

It was at the opening of the Academy that Rossetti, who was known to Hunt only through occasional meetings at the school,

approached him with impulsive cordiality, congratulating him on his picture, which he loudly proclaimed to be the best in the collection, and asked permission to call at his studio, where a few days later Hunt showed him the beginning of "Rienzi," and expounded his views, which in this instance he meant to carry out rigorously for the first time by direct application to nature for every part. Rossetti was much impressed by the soundness of this system of work, and confided his own discouragement in his art studies. Madox Brown had consented to direct these on terms of pure friendship, and, after setting him to paint a copy from a study of his own of cherub angels watching a crown of thorns, had recommended him to study still life from pickle jars and bottles lying about in the studio. In desperation at the dullness of the task, Rossetti had thrown it up and consulted Leigh Hunt, a complete stranger to him, as to the likelihood of his being able to earn his living by poetry, submitting his small collection of poems to his judgment. Leigh Hunt too well knew how unremunerative poetry was; he counselled the youth to follow painting if he had any chance of success at it, although he was very appreciative as to the poems. Rossetti asked for Holman Hunt's advice as to the necessity of exercise in still life, and was recommended to choose one of his own designs which had been much admired by Millais and himself in the folio of the Cyclographic Club to which many of the young artists contributed. The design once transferred to canvas, he might begin by painting the still life carefully so as to acquire proficiency before arriving at the figures.

The suggestion pleased Rossetti, who immediately determined to try this plan and wished to do so under Hunt's immediate direction. This was not practicable at the time, as Hunt had another pupil, but soon after, when he quitted his father's house and took a studio, Rossetti shared it, paying half the rent, and it was there that he painted the "Girlhood of Mary Virgin," his first work in oil. The idea of an association of a few ardent spirits to reform art appealed strongly to his enthusiastic nature; he wished to be accepted as a member himself, and shortly after pressed Hunt to extend the circle to certain elect spirits—Woolner, a young sculptor who wished to be enrolled; his own brother William, who joined the subscription life school Rossetti had instituted, and who arduously worked at night at conscientious transcripts from the nude, while by day holding an appointment in the Inland Revenue Office; James Collinson, a young painter who had achieved a certain amount of success in genre painting; and F. G. Stephens, who had done nothing, but who was Hunt's nominal pupil, and, carried away by the whirl of enthusiasm, seemed likely to become an artist. Millais, on his return to town after executing some decorative work at Leeds, expressed surprise at Hunt's enterprise in adopting these adherents; D. G. Rossetti being the only one who by the originality of his designs seemed likely to help them in the advancement of their views.

On entering into this question of the origin of the Pre-Raphaelite Brethren and their aims, ethical and pictorial, we come

to the point that chiefly preoccupied Holman Hunt during the writing of this book, which asserts his first claim to the ideas and leadership of the movement, and his still greater and less just pretensions to its subsequent influence on the entire art of England during the last century, ascribing to its pioneership and the battles it fought against well-worn traditions and the Academy at large, the high position accorded later to artists of views so entirely different from his own as G. F. Watts, Leighton, Burne-Jones, Walter Crane, etc., besides the reform in house decoration and stained glass effected by William Morris and the reproduction of lustre ware by W. De Morgan—truly exorbitant pretensions when we note the short duration of this coalition; Millais asserting his independence even before joining the Academy ranks, while Rossetti soon gave up exhibiting his pictures and never conformed to what he called "Hunt's hide-bound theories."

The accounts published in England and abroad Hunt considers far from exact. The idea, generally received, that Madox Brown, although never a member of the Brotherhood, had been the pioneer of the movement, having exhibited works in which a closer approach to nature had been observed, he repudiates entirely. Another point to which Hunt reverts with acrimony is that it is supposed that D. G. Rossetti was already proficient in painting in oil when he shared Hunt's studio, having acquired this knowledge of Madox Brown, while, to quote our author, "had he not been very closely, thoughtfully, and affectionately guided by me hour by hour in my studio for seven or eight months, I unhesitatingly maintain that he could not have appeared as a painter in 1849, and not even in 1850, if ever." This is too great a claim in the face of such decided gifts as those of D. G. Rossetti, for, with his unlimited enthusiasm and unwearied industry when interested in his work (according to Hunt's own account), he must surely have found for himself a method of expression sooner or later even without guidance. Those who have known the great artists of our day must have observed with how much generosity they are always ready to impart their especial methods to serious workers without attaching much importance to these favors. The frank admiration Madox Brown felt for the pictures produced by Millais and Hunt during the early years of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, and his sympathy with their aims, led to his adopting many of their methods, especially after Millais, in the exuberance of his confiding nature, explained to him their newly found system of flesh painting, which ensured purity and brilliancy of tint. The elder painter's works later on are classed by Hunt as Pre-Raphaelite, although he never adopted their restrictions, being averse to cliques. Hunt emphasizes the fact that he was never invited to join the circle, as his eccentricities in design made them fear to attract the further opprobrium of the critics on their already much derided society.

That foreign critics should have attributed to Rossetti the leadership in the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood is another grievance for Hunt, who maintains that these mistakes on the part of French art critics are due entirely to the writings of William

Rossetti, F. G. Stephens, W. B. Scott, Hall Caine, etc., and he brings this accusation with scant courtesy against his old friends. With regard to Rossetti, his adherence to Pre-Raphaelitism was not of long duration, for so original a genius would not be embarrassed by formalities and proscriptions. Hunt claims only two of his pictures as conforming to the school—"The Annunciation," now in the National Gallery, and "Found," which was never finished and is now in Mr. Bancroft's collection at Wilmington, Delaware. On the publication of Chesneau's book, 'Les Nations Rivaies dans l'Art,' in 1868, Rossetti at once wrote the following to the author.

"En ce qui concerne la qualification de 'Chef de l'École Pré-Raphaélite' que vous m'attribuez d'après vos renseignements, je dois vous assurer le plus chaudement possible qu'elle ne m'est nullement due. Loin d'être 'Chef de l'École' par priorité ou par mérite, je puis à peine me reconnaître comme y appartenant, si le style du peu que j'ai fait en peinture venait à être comparé avec les ouvrages des autres peintres nommés Pré-Raphaélites. Ainsi, quand je trouve un peintre si absolument original que l'est Holman Hunt, décrit comme étant mon 'disciple,' il est impossible de ne pas me sentir humilié en face de la vérité, et de ne pas vous assurer du contraire avec le plus grand empressement. Les qualités de réalisme émotionnel mais extrêmement minutieux, qui donnent le cachet au style nommé Pré-Raphaélite se trouvent principalement dans tous les tableaux de Holman Hunt, dans la plupart de ceux de Madox Brown, dans quelques morceaux de Hughes, et dans l'œuvre admirable de la jeunesse de Millais. C'est la camaraderie, plutôt que la collaboration réelle du style, qui a uni mon nom aux leurs dans les jours d'enthousiasme d'il y a vingt ans."

This complete disclaimer to leadership having been published in Edouard Rod's 'Études sur le Dix-neuvième Siècle' in 1888 and in William Rossetti's Memoir of Dante Gabriel Rossetti in 1895, one would think this matter closed. With even greater injustice and bitterness Hunt attacks the character of his old friend and Pre-Raphaelite brother, F. G. Stephens, who for many years was art critic of the *Athenæum*, and whose frequent and eulogistic reference to Holman Hunt's work and the narrative of his experiences when in the East did much to establish the latter's position and to keep him before the public during his long absences from England. Mr. Stephens, in a letter to the *Times*, emphatically repudiates the passages in the book which Hunt quotes from the *Athenæum* as his, he not having had any connection with that paper at the time they were published fifty years ago. He shows other allegations to be utterly fallacious.

After the lapse of a few years, Hunt's position as an artist being firmly established by his exhibited pictures and the patronage of certain lovers of art who acquired his works at generous prices, he was enabled to carry out the project he had for many years entertained of visiting the East, the Holy Land especially, and painting scenes from the New Testament from their actual surroundings. This he felt to be his life's mission, his contribution towards making the history and teaching of Christ more tangible by the actual representation of Palestine and the knowledge of the manner of life and customs of its people. It was in 1854 that he first went out—a moment when the difficulties and expenses of travelling were enormously greater than at the present time, for the enterprise of

Cook had not made Easterners familiar with the appearance and eccentricities of Western people. Obtaining models at Jerusalem was no easy task, since painting was regarded as witchcraft, endangering the sitter's soul. Then, fever was inevitable and cholera often supervened in the places stayed at. Hunt's indomitable will enabled him to surmount innumerable hardships and to pass through serious ordeals. His picture of the "Finding of Christ in the Temple" was completed in London six years later, and he has no reason to feel disappointed in the attitude of the English public from this time forward with regard to his art. He received for that picture, painted when he was thirty-three, the highest price which had hitherto been given for any modern work, viz., £5,500 sterling. It was exhibited in a special gallery by itself, with the pomp and circumstance of draperies and a darkened room, the full light being on the picture—also quite unusual then. It attracted, by its own merits and the way it was judiciously advertised by the press, a very special public, which has remained faithful to Holman Hunt's pictures ever since, and in which the clerical element predominates. Every new work is to his admirers the goal of a pilgrimage, even from remote parts of the country, for the artist is supposed to reveal new truths connected with the Bible, and his symbolism is discussed with bated breath and extreme reverence. Only two years ago his larger replica of "The Light of the World" was bought by the Right Hon. Charles Booth, who, sympathizing with the artist's desire that it should be seen in the Transvaal, has generously sent it to be exhibited throughout the colonies before being presented to the national collection at the Tate Gallery. Few artists of our day have achieved such manifest popularity as Holman Hunt while asserting independent views and remaining outside the Academy. He was, according to his own showing, the first and remains the last Pre-Raphaelite painter.

The illustrations in photogravure, which are extremely good, besides reproducing all Holman Hunt's pictures, give examples of the work of J. E. Millais, Madox Brown, D. G. Rossetti, R. Martineau, Sir W. Richmond, Henry Wallis, Spencer Stanhope, Charles Collins, and others; and in the text there are pen-and-ink sketches and studies after Holman Hunt which are full of interest.

SHALER'S MAN AND THE EARTH.

Man and the Earth. By Nathaniel S. Shaler, Professor of Geology, Harvard University. Fox, Duffell & Co. 1905.

We have known Professor Shaler as an Interpreter of Nature, but in this little volume he assumes the rôle of a Prophet, and foretells, from his study as a geologist of the past history of the earth and of man's interference with the processes of nature on its surface, what the probable fate will be of our globe, and of the vegetables and animals subsisting on its rocks, soils, waters, and atmosphere. Primitive man, like other animals, depleted earth's resources no less rapidly than nature replenished them, but civilized man is drawing lavishly, and even recklessly, on nature's stores; therefore, the

questions are vital: How long will these continue to supply his demands? And if he exhausts material which now seems essential to his well-being and his progress, are there in nature available substitutes for it? To the solution of these questions much scientific research has been devoted. In his 'Earth and Man' Professor Shaler gives his answer in popular form and untechnical language.

Almost as essential as food to our existence to-day is fuel, and of it we possess in sight and in prospect a comparatively limited quantity. Accepting the assumed life of the accessible coal deposits of the world as about 300 years, and allowing but a few decades as the duration of supply of liquid and gaseous fuel, from even the most prolific petroleum fields, Professor Shaler allays our fears as to the suffering of our very great-grandchildren from cold by pointing out that heat being, as Tyndall described it, "a mode of motion," the winds, the torrents, and the tides, as long as the sun shines, can be turned into heat with less toll than the grimy concentrated sunshine which we dig with so many labor troubles from our coal mines. The secondary battery, when improved, or some better appliance for storing energy and accumulating power, will remove the objection to the use of these intermittent and variable agents. As to petroleum, the world possesses a substitute, though it will be costly, in bituminous shale. The term "coal-oil," which came to be subsequently applied to the oil from the Pennsylvania wells, was first used for the light product of distillation of these shales from Scotland, Australasia, and from this country. Professor Shaler computes that "the oil which may possibly be had from the Ohio shales alone will much excel in volume the amount of water contained in Lake Superior."

His forecast of the world's supply of useful metals is less cheerful than that of its heat and power-giving capabilities. Mr. Carnegie, in his St. Andrews address, allowed sixty years as the life of our rich iron deposits. Our author reduces this estimate to fifty years. Our copper mines, which have been so prolific for thirty years, will certainly not continue to help us to maintain our preëminence in the metal markets of the world as long as will our iron and steel. Of all the gifts of nature which we selfishly spend and sometimes waste, as though we were actual owners instead of trustees for future generations, none are more transitory than the metals. The miner himself watches with regret the progressive signs of exhaustion in his estate which he cannot repair like the farmer. The historian of mines describes the actual disappearance of copper mining during last century from the list of British industries, and the decline of Chili from being the world's main source of supply in 1870 to its present insignificant position in the ranks of copper producers. Nevertheless it is difficult to conceive of the actual obliteration from commerce of an article which, when plentiful, seems essential to our economic system; yet this will actually take place, and many centuries may not pass before substitutes for some, if not most, of our useful metals will have to be found. In his despair, Professor Shaler, like other speculators who dip into

the future, falls back on aluminum, the base of which exists in clay. Though nothing is inexhaustible, this ingredient of the earth's crust exists the world over in quantities immensely greater than the ores of the metals, and is still being produced from decaying feldspathic rocks. Aluminum possesses qualities which, when its cost permits, will enable it to take the place of iron and copper.

However, the exhaustion of what we account ore to-day, leaves intact vastly greater quantities of the metals as constituents of the rocks of the earth, which our children will extract through the application of such improved methods as their wider knowledge and greater skill will enable them to invent and apply. There need, therefore, be no apprehension lest the world at large suffer from scarcity of iron and copper, within a measurable length of time; but the ungovernable speed with which we are drawing on our own rich resources of iron and copper, will within a few generations involve our loss of supremacy in the production of these metals and possibly shift the centres of metallurgical activity to foreign shores, and almost certainly raise the price of these staple articles of the world's industrial life.

Professor Shaler sees a less gloomy prospect than did Crookes, in his Toronto address as president of the British Association, of remote generations of our children starving for want of corn. The lands under salt and fresh water which can be recovered to the use of man by efficient dykes and drains; the large area of the earth's surface, now desert, which will be rendered prolific by artificial irrigation, will provide enough new land for the increasing population. Meanwhile, better conservation of the land, by preventing the upper soil and its valuable soluble salts from being wastefully washed into the sea, and the extraction, if need be, from the atmosphere of its carbon and nitrogen, for the restoration to the soil of its depleted fertility, may prevent the famine from which our posterity might suffer by having grown too numerous to be supported from the present arable lands of the globe.

There is a moral to all such vague speculations, interesting and depressing as they may be; and the moral is, that while there may be doubt as to the fulfilment of these prophecies, there is no doubt that the good things of this world are fleeting, and that, being limited in quantity, they should be consumed in moderation and not wasted. Petroleum as a cheap illuminant has brightened many gloomy dwellings where the tallow candle formerly made darkness visible. No one believes it to be stored in lasting quantities in the buried sandstones of the earth's crust, and yet it is tapped so recklessly that, in a new district where the first wells belch it forth faster than it can be caught, new wells are nevertheless sunk almost as close together as derricks can be erected, and the oil flows so much faster than it can be caught and transported to market that the price shrinks below a figure at which it can be normally produced. For a time it is then burnt under a boiler by the tank-carful, instead of in a lamp by the gallon.

Under our existing uneconomical systems, this misuse of one of the most precious resources of nature cannot, perhaps, be

avoided, but we are guilty of avoidable wastes of which less reckless manufacturing communities are innocent. To take an example: we are converting into coke annually 40,000,000 tons of coal. From retort coking ovens, such as are almost exclusively used in Germany, the volatile constituents of coal are caught, and from each ton of coal there is recovered about 7 per cent. more coke than when the same coal is coked in the more cheaply constructed but more wasteful bee-hive oven, and there are recovered from the gases, per ton of coal, 10 gallons of tar, and ammonia enough to make 20 pounds of ammonia sulphate. And yet, of the 40,000,000 tons of coal which we coke, only about 7 per cent. is coked in by-product ovens. From the balance, coked in bee-hive ovens, whose gases escape into the air, are wasted 370,000,000 gallons of tar, and ammonia to make 370,000 tons of ammonia sulphate, besides heat enough to generate over 6,000,000,000 horse power, or probably more than we realize from all our water powers combined. Most of this waste is made in Pennsylvania and Virginia, in the very heart of our industrial system. The value of these wasted coal products should not be estimated in dollars and cents. Our forests are being cut away in a great measure to supply the railroads with ties. The best wood preservative is creosote, a distillate from tar; and if the creosote from our coke ovens were recovered, and used as a preservative, what we now waste would treat about 37,000,000 ties a year. There would then be less temptation to go to Venezuela for bitumen, as the heavy residue after the extraction of the creosote from the tar would be a substitute for that politically troublesome material. While destroying our forests in building our railroads, our farmers are reluctant to restore the fertility of their fields, depleted by continuous cropping, by reason of the high cost of manure, and yet we are wasting monthly in the Ohio valley itself over 400,000 tons of the very richest ingredient of artificial fertilizers.

The importance of these problems cannot be overestimated; and while state interference with our industrial activity may be repugnant to our principles and habits of business, it must sooner or later be enforced, if not to regulate production, at least to forbid waste. Our children will be obliged by necessity to find a solution, but the difficulties imposed on them will be the greater the longer we neglect our own obligations and duties.

Vikings of the Pacific. By A. C. Laut. The Macmillan Co. 1905. 8vo, pp. xviii., 349. Ill.

No wilder and more romantic tales have been given to the world as fiction than may be inferred from the scanty records of the exploration of the shores of the North Pacific up to the first quarter of the nineteenth century. The innumerable reprints of Cook's Voyages and the success of the books of travel in which the work of less distinguished explorers is recorded, testify to the popular interest they have always excited. To bring before a new generation of readers the tales of heroism and endurance, of savagery and greed, of the pursuit of fortune in defiance of starvation and

death, which the bare records offer, is a worthy ambition, and it is this which Miss Laut has attempted.

Her book is divided into three parts, the first dealing with Russian explorations, beginning with Bering and his two voyages eastward from Kamchatka. Then follows an account of the expeditions of the free Promishleniki consequent upon the reports brought by Bering's crew of the sea otter and fur seal obtainable on the newly discovered coasts. After them are treated the companies formed to exploit the trade as capital and organization became necessary, and, finally, the adventures of the escaped exile Count Benyowski afford material for a chapter. The second part takes up successively Drake's voyage; the work of James Cook on the coast of America; Gray's discovery of the Columbia River; John Ledyard's adventures; and Vancouver's explorations. Vancouver, by the way, is called the "Last of Pacific Explorers," as if the North Pacific coast terminated at Cook's Inlet. Part third has two chapters. The first, entitled the "Russian American Fur Company" (which was not the name of the organization described), is headed "1579-1867," though why the forays of Yermak in western Siberia, in no way connected with the fur-trade, should be considered part of the history of a nineteenth-century corporation, is not clear. The last chapter is devoted to the history of Baranoff, resident director and virtual creator of the Russian American Company as a successful instrument of Russian commerce.

The arrangement of material, it will be observed, is illogical; the natural sequence of events would have been better observed by a chronological treatment. As it is, Drake in 1582 is made to follow the Promishleniki of 1760, and so on. No account is given of the Cossack expeditions which long preceded Bering at the strait named after him, and were the probable cause of the organization of the later official explorations.

As we have intimated, the genuine records are in many cases surprisingly brief. Bering's report of his first voyage occupies only a few pages, and to the labors of Archdeacon Coxe we owe almost all our knowledge of the voyages on the part of the Russians immediately succeeding those of Bering, the whole of which is preserved in one small octavo volume. Chaplin's journal with Bergh's commentary occupies a little duodecimo. The manuscript records relating to Bering's voyages were reported by the Russian Government to our State Department as comprising about four thousand folio pages—not "thirty thousand," as stated in Miss Laut's preface. The original records of the minor explorations in eastern Siberia perished by fire in Yakutsk about a century ago, and we have only the extracts fortunately made by Müller and the emissaries of Coxe.

To these data the literary purveyor may be justified in adding for the general reader such a modicum of imaginary background as will fill out the picture and complete as a consistent whole the version which in itself is an unfinished outline. But this justification is dependent upon several qualities in the added matter, such as accuracy in detail, a truthful atmosphere, and a subordination of the added fiction to the framework of fact it is in-

tended to illustrate and adorn. These qualities can hardly be attained from book lore; the writer must himself have had some personal experience of conditions, natural and social, in the region treated of, and self-repression enough to let the facts relating to persons tell their own story and awake in the reader his appropriate judgment on the characters depicted. The writer may have, and exhibit, an opinion of his own, but too eager an insistence on it makes of the text a sermon, and not literature.

Miss Laut seems, from the character of her text, not to claim English as her native tongue; which, if it be the case, to some extent excuses certain blunders that mar the flow of her narrative. For example, in endeavoring to reproduce the eighteenth-century atmosphere by employing marine slang, she repeatedly uses the word "beachcomber" as meaning a "breaker" on a reef or shore. But "beachcomber" is a South Sea Island hobo, usually a deserter from some ship, living as a parasite on the natives—not a breaking wave. The word "wash" seems to have a fascination for her; terrible things happen in the "wash" or "backwash" to which she is fond of referring, and which seems to mean the "undertow." In her endeavor to furnish a natural background, the author goes too far in many instances; one might almost believe she had inspected the dunnage of the sailors on Bering's expedition. Many things are reported "verminous," as, for instance, hammocks, though these would be about the last articles likely to harbor vermin; nor is there any reason to suppose the Russian adventurer was more uncleanly than other men of his time, especially as the weekly steam-bath was regarded by him as his chief luxury.

Leaving petty incongruities of style, one may inquire into the accuracy of the facts of historic origin which the author has woven into her text. In the main her narrative is fairly correct, after one rejects its imaginary setting and presumptuous epithets. She has followed the chief authorities, though not always the latest, and in the main her stories need no serious correction in their historic matter. Yet even here a certain carelessness is obvious even so early as the table of contents. The baptismal name of Count Benyowski was Moricz Agoston, or Maurice Augustine in English, not "Mauritius," as Miss Laut prints it, and his shrewd and gallant fight for freedom from the barbarities of Russian exile is hardly deserving of her epithet of piracy. He doubtless fought the devil with fire, but to one who, like the present reviewer, has seen, fifty years after Benyowski, a Polish exile in Kamchatka, who, for participation in some plot, had his nose cut off and was condemned to total loss of civil rights, and lived perpetually in danger of the knout—to put up a pretty good fight seems a tolerably natural thing under the circumstances. Miss Laut, taking her cue from Lauridsen's partisan *Life of Bering*, is profuse in her derogatory epithets for the scientific men who were ordered to accompany Bering on his second voyage, and ignores the undoubted facts that to Müller and Steller, two of these scientists, is due the preservation, as well as the collection, of nearly all that was valuable in the results of this expedition. Bering was deficient in the chief necessity

of a commander, namely, executive capacity; he cringed before the petty nobility of his environment, and signed himself "your slave" in his report of his first expedition. During his second expedition he became a broken man, physically as well as mentally, and at the last was dependent upon the tender and faithful service of the scientist Steller, who stands out as the one capable person in Bering's own party, after the expedition set sail.

Miss Laut, in the case of Captain Cook, passes over unmentioned his chief claim to the gratitude of posterity, namely, the reorganization of the commissariat of his expedition, so that by suitable food and drink the plague of scurvy was banished from his own and subsequent expeditions. Vancouver was an even more capable explorer than Cook, but Cook had the first chance at the shores of the new ocean, and Vancouver was his pupil.

We may summarize by saying that, in spite of imperfect accuracy and style, Miss Laut has succeeded in giving a vivid picture, as she has conceived it, of a strenuous series of explorations which will always be of interest to the adventurous reader. To some future Parkman remains the task of putting the vivid picture in a setting both accurate and harmonious; meanwhile, Miss Laut's work is considerably better than nothing.

John Knox and the Reformation. By Andrew Lang. Longmans, Green & Co. 1905.

John Knox, the Hero of the Scottish Reformation. By Henry Cowan, D.D. (Heroes of the Reformation Series.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905.

When a man reaches the historical eminence of John Knox, books may, not unfitly, be written about him at any time. That the Quater-centenary should have been celebrated in 1905 seems a little unfortunate, since probability fixes the date of his birth several years later. However, chronological exactness is not very important to the promoters of festivals, who as a rule feel that they have done their duty in paying some sort of homage to the decimal system. Last year having been marked, whether rightly or wrongly, by a commemoration of Knox, we get the usual crop of occasional literature. To notice all the publications thus provoked would be impossible, but we bring together two of the most notable.

Any one who has kept up with Mr. Lang's writings, whether literary or historical, would hardly expect to find him writing a panegyric of John Knox, and in this case one's natural forecast is justified by the event. As giving the point of approach, we can do nothing better than cite the opening paragraph:

"November 24, 1572. John Knox, minister, deceased, who had, as was alleged, the most part of the blame of all the sorrows of Scotland since the slaughter of the late Cardinal." It was thus that the decent burgess who, in 1572, kept *The Journal* of such daily events as he deemed important, cautiously records the death of the great Scottish Reformer. The sorrows, the 'cumber' of which Knox was 'alleged' to bear the blame, did not end with his death. They persisted in the conspiracies and rebellions of the earlier years of James VI.; they smouldered through the later part of his time; they broke into far-spreading flame at the touch of the Covenant; they blazed

at 'dark Worcester and bloody Dunbar'; they include the Cromwellian conquest of Scotland, and the shame and misery of the Restoration; to trace them down to our own age would be invidious."

Prof. Hume Brown, who also stands among the biographers of Knox, has recently given it as his opinion that, "in the struggle between the old and the new religions, a national life in a real sense first began in Scotland." When one thinks thus he can hardly avoid ascribing to Knox the honor of creating the Scottish nation. To be sure, Melville shaped the lines of Presbyterian government, but between the two men as personal forces there is no comparison, even if we leave out of the question Knox's priority in point of time. But neither Mr. William Law Mathieson nor Mr. Lang is willing to admit that on the creative side Knox was conspicuously successful. Mr. Mathieson is confident that nature intended him to be the leader of a revolution, while destiny, at cross purposes with nature, gave him formative work to do.

"We are accustomed to think of Knox as a lover of truth; and in the sense of fidelity to the best that was in him, or to what he believed to be such, no man ever served it more faithfully; but of that other and rarer form of truth, which consists of sobriety of judgment, clearness of vision, 'seeing things as they really are,' he was not so much devoid as utterly incapable."

The highly qualified enthusiasm for Knox which Mr. Mathieson displays in his 'Politics and Religion,' appears once more in the present work by Mr. Lang. Indeed, both writers have been anticipated by Lord Hailes, Hume, Robertson, and Hallam. Mr. Lang's special quarrel is with Knox's head. The Reformer's heart, he admits, was essentially sound.

"That Knox was a great man; a disinterested man; in his regard for the poor, a truly Christian man; as a shepherd of Calvinistic souls, a man fervent and considerate; of pure life; in friendship loyal; by jealousy untainted; in private character genial and amiable, I am entirely convinced. In public and political life he was much less admirable."

The work which illustrates his peculiar shortcomings most strikingly is his 'History,' with its strong partisanship and its penchant for special pleading. One of the littlenesses in Knox as a writer is his fondness for petty scandal. Wherever, for example, Mary of Guise is mentioned, it is always with a slight or an innuendo; and in disparaging enemies of the faith generally he accepts hearsay with the same readiness which Milton displayed when waging wordy strife against Salmasius and Morus.

Among the many episodes which Mr. Lang examines in detail with a view to disclosing Knox's aptitude for sailing near the wind, none is more characteristic of the Scottish Reformation than the Truce of July 24, 1559, between Mary of Guise and the Lords of the Congregation. Outnumbered two to one by the Regent's forces, the Protestant leaders were forced from the field and compelled to accept an armistice of nearly six months. It was an age when public opinion supported authority, when Calvin denounced opposition to rulers in the strongest terms, and when Elizabeth of England, a prop upon whom the Scottish Protestants largely relied, loathed nothing so much as a rebel. According to Mr. Lang's elaborate plea,

Knox and those of his party were anxious to get full credit for loyalty, while actively contriving the overthrow of established government. Regarding the nature of the terms agreed to, and the way in which these terms were kept, there are certainly many equivocal statements in the history. "At this point," says Mr. Lang, "Knox's narrative becomes so embroiled that it reminds me of nothing so much as of Claude Nau's attempts to glide past an awkward point in the history of his employer, Mary Stuart." How far Knox was misled, or of set purpose deceived, by erroneous information, seems to be the only question in doubt, for numerous dispatches of Sadler, the English ambassador, make clear the duplicity of the Lords in their dealings with the Regent. Throughout the account which he gives of 1559, Knox is either shutting his eyes, or is deceived, or is deceiving himself.

While Mr. Lang is not unsuccessful in disclosing the perfidies of the Protestant lords and in exhibiting the self-persuasive power of their apostle, he has let rather too much cleverness and subtlety creep into his book. Whether through eagerness to prove his point, or repugnance to Calvinistic intolerance, he permits his volume to assume the character of a pamphlet. Admitting in general terms the historical greatness of Knox, he takes it for his particular function to disclose the Reformer's shortcomings. Such compliments as are paid to Knox in his private character carry little weight when balanced against the tale of his inconsistencies as a writer or leader. Those who would see why the Reformation left a crop of rancors in Scotland may well turn to these pages, but it helps one little if any to understand the fundamental strength of a nature which made itself the rallying-point of a national movement.

Dr. Cowan's work is less a piece of delectation or of eulogy than a plain narrative of events, with occasional comment upon the main issues which claimed Knox's effort. The most notable single statement which we have discovered in it is suggested by the quarrel between Knox and Moray, where it is said of the reformer: "He preferred internal conflict with all its hazards, while a Protestant ascendancy was maintained, to internal peace which would give Romanists the opportunity of recovering their strength, increasing their numbers, and preparing for a future struggle." This observation sums up, in our opinion, the whole state of the case as between Knox and his aristocratic allies. Having gained something from the concessions of the Government, they were willing to temporize in 1565, at the critical moment of the Scottish Reformation. Knox, who was determined not to hold parley with the accursed thing, kept on his way in complete disregard of the effect to be produced by action upon the peace of Scotland, then or in subsequent generations. It is doubtless worth Mr. Lang's while to define the nature of Knox's limitations, but modern Scotland chiefly remembers the fact that his illiberality brought with it emancipation.

The Risen Sun. By Baron Suyematsu. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

The Japanese Government has many times

followed precedents furnished by the United States and to the advantage of the nation. Furthermore, no modern people has been more eager in seeking to know, or sensitive in responding to, the best public opinion of the world than the Japanese. They have carefully studied the American way from the days of Franklin and Adams to those of Lincoln and Seward. As, in our civil war, private envoys were dispatched beyond sea to explain and defend the Union cause, so, on the eve of the outbreak with Russia, Mutsuhito dispatched several elect, highly cultivated and amply equipped servants to win and hold the world's sympathy. Baron Kaneko, graduate of Harvard in America, Takahashi, pupil of American missionaries, as financial director on both continents, and Baron Suyematsu, student at Cambridge, and able to use German, French, and English in Europe, have creditably fulfilled their mission. Their pens have conquered for Japan both credence and credit, sympathy and aid. No less skilfully than Oyama and Nogi and Kuroki, Togo and Uriu on field and deck, have the Japanese controlled the sources of information and manipulated the levers of world-moving opinion.

While we wait for Kaneko's book and Takahashi's report, we have Suyematsu's London-made volume named by the British publisher. It is well edited and attractively presented. The title is hardly a product of Bushido, which aims at modest self-repression and depreciation of one's own. Among the most conceited of men and quite equal to the Yankee, is the Japanese gentleman, but he is refined even in his methods of egotism. This volume is made up of the papers contributed by Baron Suyematsu during the war to various books or periodicals in three languages. The matter is distributed tripartitely, the "books" being severally entitled: *Antecedent to the War; A Nation in Training; and, External Relations.* Light in hand but weighty in contents and indexed, the volume is of permanent value. That portion, already included in Stead's *'Japan by the Japanese,'* treating of ethics and religion, has been already glanced at in these columns.

Since these papers are all accessible in periodicals, we need not examine each in detail, but inquire as to the real riches and note the possible poverty in the collection now so conveniently at hand. To put these valuable products of mind, heart, and pen in a special volume is to incur the responsibility of scientific appraisal and frank criticism. It is well to know the Japanese ways in the art of apologetic writing of history. While the virtues are great, the sin of omission is of equal proportions. As is now said of Motley by perhaps all the Dutch historians and critics—he grasped the outside relations and set forth admirably the story of the Netherlands for foreigners, but never really entered the penetralia of Dutch politics; so, with consummate adroitness, our Japanese writer answers the questions and refutes the objections lying on the surface, but is apt to parry searching scrutiny that might lay open unpleasant realities. As cool, as judicial, as self-restrained as Benjamin Franklin, he shows in four chapters how the Russians brought on the war. In his opening paper on "An Anglo-Japanese View

of the Far Eastern Question," before the Constitutional Club in 1904, he rightly names as the key to the situation the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, which made Japan's path clear to smite the Muscovite, while sustaining Great Britain's position in the Far East. When he expatiates on woman's education, ethics, freedom of conscience, etc., etc., the inquirer into reality is hardly satisfied. Do the Japanese really want their women to have and to enjoy the higher education? If so, why do they leave the work and cost to private initiative and expense? And why is the reform of licensed prostitution left almost wholly to aliens? Why is the atrocity of parental sale of daughters still permitted? So long as the demands of filial piety override woman's strongest hope and ambition—chastity—can Japan be called civilized? As for all the intellectual and religious freedom boasted of, can the sun have risen when freedom of academic investigation is under ban? We can understand "the real significance" of hara-kiri, even while we see clearly its moral poltroonery. What kind of courage is that of suicide? Can self-murder be justified even though one's face is saved? So long as the tombs of assassins are flower-covered by an admiring populace, and the victim of defeat or failure can shirk inquiry and deserved disgrace, so long as a villain can redeem his reputation by the belly-cut, non-Japanese opinion will be cool in its admiration.

Again, in writing of "The Great Change in Japan" consequent upon the introduction of Western civilization, our author in the first paper utterly ignores the Hollanders' influences of a quarter of a millennium, and in the second paper unduly minimizes it, while giving no credit whatever to the American teachers who began, nine years before the Tokio Government got into power, to fill the minds of native lads (now and since 1870 among the leading men of the country) with the ideas of freedom and representative government. In brief, why, in the days of "The Risen Sun," when concealment of facts is no longer possible, should so frank a scholar, refined gentleman, true patriot, and man of the world as Baron Suyematsu be, and with so noble a recorded service, seek to imitate the uncanny fashion of his old-time literary brethren?

The paper on the historical expansion of China is an admirable bit of scholarship. The naturalization of foreigners in Japan is also explained, but one contemplating the step had better read Lafcadio Hearn's profound and penetrating work on *'Japan: An Interpretation'*—as frank as a missionary report, and as pitiless in its exposure as a Salvation Army tract—in which it is clearly shown that the Japanese family is still in the Homeric stage of evolution. The word "family," an expression of a legal entity only, has not the meaning or perspective which the English word carries.

The Story of Cambridge. By Charles W. Stubbs. Illustrated by Herbert Ralston. London: J. M. Dent & Co. 1905.

How curious it is that we cherish Oxford and ignore Cambridge, when there are so many reasons why it should be just

the other way about. Is Oxford older? Both universities spring from a remote past that defies the dating power of antiquarians. Is Oxford more beautiful? She has no single building that compares with King's College chapel; she has no glimpses so lovely as may be found at every step of that wonderful half-mile along the Cambridge backs from Queen's Bridge to the Bridge of Sighs at St. John's. Has Oxford produced greater men? Far from it; more than her share of the great names of England is associated with Cambridge. Bacon, Cromwell, Macaulay, Byron, William Pitt, Newton, Tennyson, Milton, Darwin, Wordsworth—such are a few that come haphazard to the memory. Has Oxford any more intimate association with America? On the contrary. Oxford has always stood for King and Church, Cambridge for Parliament and freedom. The eastern counties, swept by the stinging winds from the North Sea, long produced the hardest race of England; and if now the counties of Cambridge and Lincoln and Norfolk no longer show the vigor that marked them from the time of the Danes to that of the Commonwealth, the reason is largely that, in the seventeenth century, the best part of the population crossed the Atlantic and founded New England. Go from Cambridge in any direction, but especially north and east, and you will pass through the towns whose names are those of Massachusetts. Ipswich and Norwich, Ware and Milton, Boston and Lynn, Malden and Lincoln, and many familiar villages are all within those eastern counties that fed the University of Cambridge and peopled New England in the past. And although at the present day Oxford and Cambridge no longer draw their students from a local constituency, yet much of the old tradition survives; all good Oxford and Cambridge men are content that the two

universities should be equal sisters in learning and culture, and yet there persists a difference of tradition and of ideal which should, but does not, draw Americans rather to the banks of the Cam than to those of the Isis.

This little book is a handy guide to the university town, which it may be hoped many will use. It will prove sufficiently accurate for the ordinary traveller, and even for those who stay at home it may give a pleasing impression by its exceptionally well-executed illustrations. It is a pity, however, that an artist of such ability and charm as Mr. Railton will not make any concessions to accuracy.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Andy. Cattle Brands. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.
Amelung, Walther, and Heinrich Holzinger. The Museums and Ruins of Rome. 2 vols. Dutton. \$3 net.
Arbiter in Council, The. Macmillan Co. \$2.50.
Bankside Shakespeare. Love's Labour's Lost. Edited by Isaac H. Platt. The Shakespeare Society of New York.
Beach, Rex. E. The Spoilers. Harpers. \$1.50.
Bedford, Randolph. The Snare of Strength. Boston: Herbert B. Turner & Co. \$1.50.
Buckley, James M. The Fundamentals and their Contrasts. Easton & Mains. \$1 net.
Burroughs, John. Bird and Bough. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1 net.
Cheney, Warren. The Challenge. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Co.
Church Hymns and Tunes. Edited by H. B. Turner and W. F. Biddle. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Conover, James P. Memories of a Great Schoolmaster. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50 net.
Crimmins, John D. Irish-American Historical Miscellany. Published by the Author.
Cust, Robert H. Hobart. Giovanni Antonio Bazzi. 1477-1549. Dutton. \$6 net.
Daun, Berthold. Velt Stoss. Lemcke & Buechner.
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DeVries, Hugo. Species and Varieties: Their Origin by Mutation. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.
Diehle, Charles. Figures Byzantines. Paris: Armand Colin.
Evans, Henry Ridgley. The Old and the New Magic. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.
Fechner, Gustav Theodor. On Life after Death. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.
Friedell, Laura Fain. In the Sixties and Seventies. Boston: Herbert Turner & Co. \$3.50 net.
Frothingham, Eugene Brooks. The Evasion. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50.

Haverfield, F. J. The Romanization of Roman Britain. Henry Frowde.
Haverstick, Alexander C. A Sunday School Kindergarten. Milwaukee: Young Churchman Co. 50 cents net.
History of All Nations. Vol. XV.: The Age of Frederick the Great. By Martin Philippson. Vol. XVI.: The French Revolution and the Rise of Napoleon. By Theodor Flathe. Philadelphia: Lea Brothers & Co.
Hodgkin, Thomas. The History of England. Vol. I. Longmans. \$2 net per vol.
Hodgkin, Harold. The Philosophy of Religion. Translated by H. E. Meyer. Macmillan Co. \$3.
Holder, Charles Frederick. The Log of a Sea Angler. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.50 net.
Holland as Seen and Described by Famous Writers. Edited by Esther Singleton. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.00 net.
Holt, Henry. Calmire.—Sturmsee. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Hopkins, William John. The Clammer. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25.
Hume, Fergus. Lady Jim of Curson Street. G. W. Dillingham Co.
Legend of St. Juliana. Translated by Charles W. Kennedy. Princeton: The University Library.
Loeb, Jacques. The Dynamics of Living Matter. Macmillan Co. \$3.
Markham, Sir Clements. A Memoir of Archbishop Markham, 1719-1807. Henry Frowde. 6s. net.
Orinda Booklets. I.: Katherine Philips. II.: Robert Southey. III.: Henry Reynolds. IV.: Thomas Flatman. Hull, England: J. B. Tutin.
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Pope, G. U. A Handbook of the Tamil Language. Henry Frowde. 6s. net.
Rice, Cale Young. Plays and Lyrics. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Rothschild, Alonso. Lincoln Master of Men. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$3 net.
Rudmose Brown, Thomas B. La Versification Française et la Versification Anglaise. Grenoble: Allier Frères.
Smith, F. Hopkinson. The Novels, Stories, and Sketches of. Vol. XI.: At Close Range.—Vol. XII.: The Wood Fire in No. 3. Scribners. \$1.50 net each.
Smyth, H. Warrington. Mast and Sail in Europe and Asia. Dutton. \$6 net.
Spofford, Harriet Prescott. Old Washington. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. \$1.50.
Stall, Sylvanus. What a Young Boy Ought to Know. Philadelphia: The Vir Publishing Co. \$1.
Stiefel, H. C. Slices from a Long Loaf. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. \$1.
Stubbs, Charles William. The Christ of English Poetry. Dutton. \$2 net.
Stubbs, William. Lectures on Early English History. Longmans.
Swift, Morrison I. Marriage and Race Death. The Morrison I. Swift Press. \$1.10.
Thompson, Charles Willis. Party Leaders of the Time. G. W. Dillingham Co. \$1.75 net.
Thomson, John. Hither and Thither. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.
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Whitcomb, Seiden L. The Study of a Novel. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

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